STRATEGIES AND GUIDELINES FOR EDUCATORS TO DEAL WITH BEHAVIOUR PROBLEMS.

by

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Declaration

I, the undersigned do hereby declare that the work contained in this assignment is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree.

SUMMARY

The increase in violence in our society has a huge impact on learning in some schools. Learners become more and more disruptive and educators experience schools as an unsafe environment. This causes an impediment to learning and teaching.

Even educators who have a wealth of experience find it difficult to control and discipline learners in a constructive and positive way. Because of their lack of knowledge and skills, many educators shift their responsibility to teach social skills to the parent whom they believe should actually be responsible for the discipline of their children.

The realization that academic achievement and discipline goes hand in hand has compelled educationists and psychologists to address disciplinary problems. Educators are also aware that parents and the education department expect all learners to receive quality education. A definite need has, therefore, arisen to support educators to deal with the youth at risk, disruptive learners, those who are at risk of dropping out, and those who are being expelled or suspended. The purpose of this research is, therefore, to develop guidelines and strategies for educators to deal with disruptive behaviour in the classroom.

Many strategies have been developed in the past to address disruptive behaviour. Despite implementing these strategies, disruptive behaviour is on the increase. The research revealed that the failure of these strategies can be attributed to their punitiveness and the emphasis that was placed on control and compliance. These strategies also have failed, because it did not teach the learners insight in their self-defeating behaviour and how it impacts on themselves and others.

The Life Space Crisis Intervention (LSCI) strategy was developed to support educators to teach these learners self-control skills by teaching them to gain insight in their destructive behaviour. According to the LSCI model the behaviour of learners can be grouped according to the six central issues:

- Displacement of Conflict
- Lack of Social Skills
- Peer Manipulation and Vulnerability to Peer Influence
- Anti-social Behaviour without Guilt
- Irrational Beliefs
- Impulsivity with Guilt.

The LSCI Model was structured in such a way to give educators a clear guideline how to support disruptive learners and youth at risk. Although educators were given a clear cognitive map to apply the LSCI strategy, research revealed that they were not very successful in teaching learners the necessary skills to apply self-control and to become resilient. To apply the LSCI model successfully, it is crucial for educators to acquire the appropriate skills to teach learners to gain insight in their self-defeating behaviour and to apply self-control. The assumption can be made that educators do not only need guidelines, but they also need the necessary skills to teach learners to apply self-control. They also need to know what specific strategies are needed to support a learner that exhibit a specific central issue.

The researcher attempted to develop strategies and guidelines for educators to deal with the following central issues:

- Peer Manipulation and Vulnerability to Influence
- Impulsivity with guilt and
- Anti-social behaviour without Guilt

This research attempted to draw upon the various literature, and where necessary developed strategies to support educators by looking at what skills educators need to support disruptive learners and what strategies can be implemented to teach these learners insight in their self-defeating behaviour.

OPSOMMING

Die toename in geweld in ons samelwing het 'n groot impak op leer in ons skole. Leerders raak al hoe meer ontwrigtend en opvoeders ervaar skole as onveilig.

Selfs opvoeders wat jare ervaring het vind dit moeilik om leerders op 'n konstruktiewe en positiewe manier te beheer en te dissiplineer. Omdat hulle die kennis en vaardighede ontbreek, skuif baie opvoeders hul verantwoordelikheid om leerders sosiale vaardighede te onderrig na die ouers. Hulle glo dat ouers verantwoordelik is vir die dissiplinering van hul kinders en nie die skool nie.

Omdat opvoeders en sielkundiges besef dat akademiese prestasie en dissipline hand aan hand gaan, het dit hulle genoop om dissiplinêre probleme wat ervaar word aan te spreek. Opvoeders is ook bewus van die feit dat ouers en die onderwys departement verwag dat alle leerders kwaliteit opvoeding en onderwys moet ontvang. 'n Behoefte het dus ontstaan om opvoeders te ondersteun in die hantering van risiko leerders, gedragsmoeilike leerders, diegene wat moontlik mag uitval op skool en diegene wat uitgeset of geskors word. Die doel van hierdie navorsing is dus om riglyne en strategieë vir opvoeders te ontwikkel om ontwrigtende gedrag in die klaskamer te hanteer.

In die verlede is verskeie strategieë ontwikkel om ontwrigtende gedrag aan te spreek. Alhoewel hierdie strategieë geïmplementeer word, neem ontwrigtende gedrag in die klaskamer toe. Navorsing het bewys dat die mislukking van hierdie strategieë toegeskryf kan word aan die feit dat dit te ingestel was op straf, beheer en onderworpenheid. Die feit dat hierdie strategieë gefaal het, kan ook toegeskryf word aan die feit dat dit leerders nie insig in hul destruktiewe gedrag en watter invloed dit op hulself en ander het, geleer het nie.

Die "Life Space Crisis Intervention" (LSCI) strategie was ontwikkel om opvoeders te help om leerders selfbeheersingsvaardighede aan te leer deur vir hulle insig te gee in hul

destruktiewe gedrag. Volgens die LSCI model kan leerders se gedrag in ses sentrale gedragspatrone gegroepeer word:

- Verplasing van konflik
- Gebrek aan sosiale vaardighede
- Portuur manupilasie en weerloosheid aan portuur invloede
- Anti-sosiale gedrag sonder skuldgevoelens
- Irrasionele denke
- Impulsiwiteit met skuldgevoelens

Die LSCI model is op so 'n manier gestruktureer dat dit opvoeders duidelike riglyne bied hoe om gedragsmoeilike en hoe risiko leerders te ondersteun. Alhoewel opvoeders 'n duidelike kognitiewe raamwerk gegee is om die LSCI strategie toe te pas, het navorsing getoon dat hulle nie baie suksesvol was om leerders selfbeheersingsvaardighede aan te leer om hul meer weerbaar te maak nie. Dit is noodsaaklik dat opvoeders toepaslike vaardighede bekom om hierdie leerders insig in hul destruktiewe gedrag te leer, sodat hulle die nodige selfbeheersing kan toepas. Daar kan van die veronderstelling uit gegaan word dat opvoeders nie net die nodige riglyne benodig nie, maar dat hulle ook die nodige vaardighede benodig om leerders te leer hoe om selfbeheersing toe te pas. Dit is ook belangrik dat hulle moet weet watter spesifieke strategieë nodig is om ondersteuning te bied aan 'n leerder wat 'n spesifieke gedragspatroon openbaar.

In hierdie navorsing sal daar gepoog word om strategieë en riglyne vir opvoeders te ontwikkel om die onderstaande sentrale aspekte te hanteer:

- Portuur manupilasie en weerloosheid aan portuur invloede
- Anti-sosiale gedrag sonder skuldgevoelens
- Impulsiwiteit met skuldgevoelens

Die navorsing poog om deur literatuurverkenning na bestaande strategieë te kyk, en waar nodig, strategieë te ontwikkel wat opvoeders sal help om leerders wat ontwrigtend is, te ondersteun. Daar sal ook gekyk word na watter vaardighede opvoeders nodig het en watter strategieë kan geïmplementeer word om hierdie leerders insig in hul destruktiewe gedrag te gee.

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CHAPTER 1

ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH AND THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Schools are regarded as educational institutions where optimum learning and teaching should take place. In order to achieve this there should be ample opportunities for learning. Schools must therefore create an environment that is caring, safe and conducive to learning. It is important for learners to identify with the whole school community and the learning process so that they can reach their full potential. Pickel (1992: 10) emphasizes this by stating that "education is the primary aim of schools and this function encompasses not just formal academic subjects, but also physical skills, social development, intellectual ability and personal awareness."

Educators are in the best position to make such learning available. This can only be accomplished if educators have the opportunity to teach in an environment that is free of aggression and violence. According to Lamplugh and Pagan (1996: 3) an atmosphere of threat can damage morale so that staff does not work well, relations with pupils, parents and colleagues can become strained and the quality of teaching and service provided by education establishments may deteriorate. The Education Service Advisory Committee of the Health and Safety Commission in Britain admits that many staff considers violence at work as one of the most important problems they face. Educators in South Africa are facing the same problems of violence that educators in Britain are experiencing and unfortunately some of the schools don't meet those requirements as stated by Pickel, because societal trends seem to promote violence as the solutions to interpersonal conflicts. Increasing numbers of learners bring to school the anti-social behaviour learned and reinforced in their community.

Teaching at certain schools and in certain areas of the Western Cape has become a challenging and a high risk career. Educators' stress is related to day-to-day threats to their classroom control and to their physical safety. Disruptive learner behaviour is becoming a major concern in some schools in the Western Cape and it is increasingly difficult for educators to focus on teaching since so much time is spent on disciplining learners. This state of affairs are reflected in newspaper articles which states that truancy and vandalism rates among learners have increased as have reports on physical attacks (Cape Argus, 22 October 2001).

Daily we read about these hazards in the lives of the youth at risk, for example divorce, incest, child abuse, rape, violence, gangs and the bringing of weapons to school, etcetera (Metro Burger, 21 February 2002). Our youth are overwhelmed and pressured by these negative aspects of our society. Because of these social ills, their lives are traumatized and painful and they are constantly under stress. According to a psychologist in private practice "adolescents no longer have access to guidance councilors and support. Because of that, adolescents don't always have coping strategies. A problem which could have been dealt with, seems impossible to solve" (Cape Argus, 22 March 2001).

In order to cope, a minority will also take action on their own behalf to change the situation for themselves. For some, according to Tim Pickel (1992: 4-5) this personal strategy is likely to be regarded by the school as a challenge to its established norms, and the student may be labeled as "disaffected". He distinguishes between active disaffection and passive disaffection. Active disaffection is often more visible and create greater problems for the classroom teacher. It is more visible and can take the form of verbal or physical abuse often directed to educators, outright refusal to cooperate, damage to property and equipment and truancy. Passive disaffection, where there are fewer outward signs of disruption, refers to a learner who does not act out his or her frustration or challenge, but withdraws into a more private 'personal world': the student simply does not engage outwardly with school life. This is the quiet, withdrawn

learner, sitting in the back of the class, not participating in any of the activities. Active and passive disaffection can merge into one another. The withdrawn learner may start to take prolonged absences from school and still not be noticed. Because the passive disaffected learner does not get the necessary attention, he will, as previously mentioned, resort to suicide.

This phenomenon is not unique to the South African situation. What occurs here on a daily basis is equally rife in a country like America. The American Psychological Association's Commission on Violence and Youth (APA, 1993 in Walker, Colvin, and Ramsey, 1995: XXI) found that children and youth are becoming involved in violence at ever-younger ages, and the report states that parenting failure, school factors, and academic achievements are important casual influences.

Further, the commission cites empirical evidence that possibly there are up to four individual social factors that play a major role in the development of violent behaviour patterns among our children and youth:

- Easy access to firearms
- Involvement with drugs and alcohol
- Affiliation with gangs and anti social groups, and
- Exposure to violence depicted in the mass media.

Although this violent and aggressive behaviour is on the increase, Americans are hesitant to enact meaningful legislation to protect these children (Zorga, 1995 in Van Acker, 1995: 9). The above mentioned behaviour that the American Psychological Association's Commission on Violence and Youth identified can be equated to the negative behaviour of the youth in South Africa. It is clear that this disruptive behaviour is being dealt with in an extremely professional fashion.

Because of the intensity and depth of the problems the youth at risk face and in order to address the problems, educationists like Brendtro, Brokenleg, and Van Bockeren, (1990: 6-7) identified four ecological hazards in the lives of youth at risk:

- **Destructive relationships**, as experienced by the rejected or unclaimed child, hungry for love but unable to trust, expecting to be hurt again.
- **Climates of futility**, as encountered by the insecure youngsters, crippled by feelings of inadequacy and fear for failure.
- **Learned irresponsibility**, as seen in the youth whose sense of powerlessness may be masked by indifference or defiant, rebellious behaviour.
- **Loss of purpose**, as portrayed by a generation of self-centered youth, desperately searching for meaning in a world of confusing values.

The above mentioned hazards, so eloquently described by Brendtro and colleagues, are to a great extent applicable to the South African youth.

When writing their policy on Youth At Risk, the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) also identified that the above hazards, as described by Brendtro and his colleagues are also factors that pertain to the South African youth. According to the WCED, locally the youth may engage in the following behaviour:

- Inability to build satisfactory interpersonal relationships within the school, home and social environment. The Youth become relationship-resistant and distrust adults who have the best of intentions (Brendtro, et al., 1990: 8).
- Inappropriate behaviour or emotional response under normal circumstances
- Disruptive, violent behaviour and behaviour that violates social norms, refusal to follow rules at home or in the schools.
- Truancy
- Substance abuse
- At risk of dropping out of school or school dropout

(Western Cape Education Department, 2002: 6)

Learners who come to school are required to interact with peers in a variety of social situations. Most learners adjust well to the new demand they confront within the school setting. Unfortunately many learners who come to school lack the basic social skills needed for responsible behaviour or as Van Acker (1995: 10) puts it, "they lack the understanding to successfully navigate in this complex social context, named school". They argue, fight, bully and are unable to describe their feelings or control their anger or impulses. They disrupt classrooms and their frustration, which can also be attributed to inadequate academic skills and as previously mentioned pro-social skills. In this regard, Tattum (1986: 7) is of the opinion "that the symptoms of stress in youths manifests themselves in a variety of ways – excitement, anxiety, frustration, anger, fear, and irritability – conditions which will affect a person's ability to cope, and have harmful and debilitating effects on inter-personal relationships." Van Acker (1995: 10) makes it clear that many enter school without having developed the effective pro-social strategies necessary to solve interpersonal problems, negotiate conflict situations, and deal with their emotions. Like Tattum, he stresses that these children have learned to employ aggressive and violent responses when confronted with social dilemmas.

According to Gibson (1997: 2-3) these youth are seen as children who "fail to make satisfactory academic progress, do not behave well in class, do not do as they are told, or refuse to play the school game as been dictated." They are according to the author, in actual fact, the special needs children, the disruptive learners, the pregnant learners, the emotionally disturbed learners, the absent-more-than-present learners, the-talk-back-to-the-teacher learners, even as mentioned earlier, the quiet and passive learners. They can be regarded as our potential drop-outs or our youth at risk. As these youth are already assigned a multitude of labels by the wider community, they are unable to significantly identify with the education process. This leads to alienation in all spheres of society e.g. political, economical, social, educational, the law, etc. which is also detrimental to the building of sound relationships between the youth and adults. Although they have

been assigned many names and labels, they all have, according to Gibson (1997: 3) one thing in common and that is the absence of a "significant attachment, either at home or at school, to a caring adult in their lives, an adult who will give them time, attention, care, and direction they need to flourish".

In order to cope with this environment where they are exposed to confusing and negative morals and values, for example violence themes in films, music, sports, literature and toys. Van Acker (1995: 9) is of the opinion that the media often glamorizes violence and presents it as a commonplace and acceptable means of dealing with problems. Children and youth must somehow deal with the mixed messages they encounter related to aggression and violence as a means of problem solving. The result is that they develop styles of behaviour that are displeasing and disruptive to schools. Even if schools do not encounter extreme incidents, they must cope daily with a variety of learner behaviours that jeopardize a safe school climate.

Non-conformity with the established rules and norms is an issue for nearly every school. The school experiences the problem as violence and aggression, bullying, conflict, vandalism, withdrawal, non co-operation, unauthorized truancy and absences. The learner experiences the problem as boredom, irrelevance, lack of understanding, disinterest, lack of sympathy, and powerlessness. Disaffection is a problem for both school and learner. Many children receive little meaningful assistance in their efforts to come to grips with aggressive and violent behavior and schools, in turn, often fail to effectively teach the alternative pro-social strategies necessary to replace the aggressive approaches (Pickel, 1992: 5; Van Acker, 1995: 10).

Currently educators are faced with rage, resentment and revenge, which troubled youth cannot control and educators cannot handle in their classrooms. In the past schools used threats, control, containment, punishment and exclusion to deal with learners with behaviour problems. Corporal punishment has been done away with, which left educators with feelings of helplessness, powerlessness and discouragement. A clear

indication of the frustration educators is experiencing can be picked up in a statement made by an educator teaching in the Metropole East Education District: "Lyfstraf in skole moet heringestel word. Ons land se kinders is besig om barbare te word en die regering staar hom blind daarteen" (Metro Burger, 21 February 2002).

However, the Minister of Education's representative, Bheki Khumalo, does recognize that discipline is a widespread problem. "In some cases, the problem is so drastic that it's not simply getting learners to do their homework and concentrate in class; it's a matter of restraining students from being physically abusive. Clearly some educators are terrified in this country. They fear their own pupils. Whipping children doesn't help anything educational, and that meeting violence with violence perpetuates a destructive cycle" (The Teacher, September, 2000: 3). As was mentioned above, it is clear that traditional discipline strategies are not effective with troubled learners because they have a curbing intention that reacts to symptoms. When traditional discipline strategies were applied, its point of departure was to look for the problem within the child. The context was never taken in consideration. Important then, according to Tattum (1985: 4-5) that "to look beyond the pupil takes us into the school and classroom, and requires us to consider whether the nature of the organization places constraints and controls on the pupil which are themselves problematic and what is more, that the attitudes and expectations can create confrontational situations for pupils who lack the social skills of *'pleasing teacher'* ".

1.2 POLICY INTERVENTIONS TO SUPPORT THE DISRUPTIVE LEARNER

1.2.1 Revised expulsion and Suspension Procedure Structure

The inability of educators to manage disruptive behaviour and to cope with behaviour problems resulted in learners being punished and consequently led to the increase of

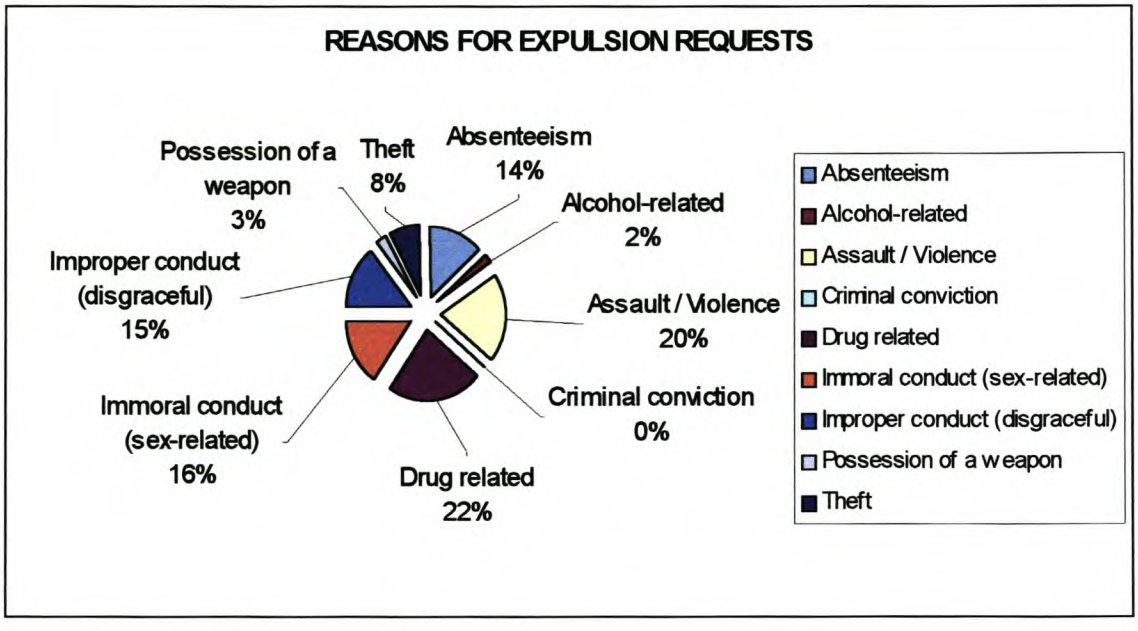
requests for expulsion to the education department. The Western Cape Education Department (WCED) analyzed the numerous requests for expulsion. See figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Expulsion Statistics 2002

Specific (Primary) Reasons for Expulsion requests

[Last updated: 3rd January 2002]

		Expelled			% of Expulsions
Absenteeism	25	14%	4	5%	16%
Alcohol-related	4	2%	1	1%	25%
Assault / Violence	36	20%	21	26%	58%
Criminal conviction	0	0%	0	0%	#DIV/0!
Drug related	41	23%	24	30%	59%
Immoral conduct (sex-related)	28	16%	16	20%	57%
Improper conduct (disgraceful)	27	15%	8	10%	30%
Possession of a weapon	5	3%	5	6%	100%
Theft	14	8%	1	1%	7%
TOTAL=	180		80		



Source: Western Cape Education Department, January 2002

The seriousness of the above statistics motivated the Western Cape Education Department to develop a draft framework for a revised expulsion and suspension procedure structure. It is commendable that they are trying to deal with expulsion in a proper fashion. But, it is however, disturbing that there are so much time and energy

spend on drafting an expulsion model and not the same kind of attention is given to develop strategies to support learners to control themselves and educators to deal with disruptive behaviour.

It is clear that expulsion and suspension is not the answer, because according to Jere Brophy (1996: 32), suspension from school removes disruptive learners from class, but many of these learners will welcome the "vacation" from school, all of them will lose work, and most will be resentful rather than contrite. Problems resulting in a child's removal from school arouse strong feelings, both in parents, educators and the pupil himself. Resolving these problems requires flexibility. Too rigid a framework or policy in this regard, reduces the chances of a mutually acceptable compromise being worked out. A confrontation where each stands by his legal rights can hardly provide a suitable climate for such a compromise (Galloway, Ball, Blomfield, and Seyd, 1982: 12).

To remove a learner from the class or school is also contradictory to section 29 of the Constitution (Constitution of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996) where the state secures the right to basic education to all in South Africa. The Bill of Rights (Chapter Two of the Constitution) makes provision in section 29(1) for basic education and equal access to educational institution.

1.2.2 Inclusion and Training

The right to education in the least restrictive environment is also outlined in the Education White Paper 6 (South Africa, Department of Education, 2001: 16) which deals with the policy regarding inclusion and training. The inclusion policy is about:

- Acknowledging that all children and youth need support.

- Accepting and respecting the fact that all learners are different in some way and have different learning needs which are equally valued and an ordinary part of our human experience.
- Enabling education structures, systems and learning methodologies to meet the needs of all learners.
- Changing attitudes, behaviour, teaching methodologies, curricula and the environment to meet the needs of all learners.
- Maximizing the participation of all learners in the culture and the curricula of educational institutions and uncovering and minimizing barriers to learning.
- Empowering learners by developing their individual strengths and enabling them to participate critically in the process of learning.

With regard to the inclusion and training policy where schools must accommodate all learners it is therefore crucial that learners should be supported to overcome their behaviour problems or learning barriers to function normal in the classroom and society at large.

1.2.3 The Youth-at- Risk

This lack of support to educators and learners with behaviour problems can be traced as far back as 1996 when a report, "In Whose Best Interest?" was published by the Inter-Ministerial Committee (IMC). This report stressed that the current system of providing services to children at risk was not effective. According to the report a growing number of children and youth bring to school increasingly complex social, emotional and behavioural needs and for various reasons many drop out of school.

Many of these youths at risk (YAR) are caught up in a vicious cycle of rejection, denigration, school dropout, unemployment and poverty. These circumstances result in youth being lured into gang activities and crime and eventually many are committed to residential care facilities or are incarcerated.

The above report made the WCED realize that a whole new model of effective service delivery should be put in place to support mainstream – and special schools dealing with learners with behaviour – and emotional problems. A policy on special education services for learners manifesting or at risk of experiencing emotional and/or behavioural difficulties was drafted to improve the education and reclaim young people at risk (WCED, 2002).

This policy was drafted within the framework of the policy recommendations by the IMC (1996), which looked at a whole spectrum of social services to Young People at Risk which emphasizes prevention, early intervention and placement in the least restrictive environment with a view to minimizing residential care. The risk elements imply a history of physical and/or emotional deprivation and/or abuse and a more serious degree of developmental and functional difficulty that invariably requires skilled interventions.

The Interim Policy Recommendations by the IMC report (1996: 4-5) also stressed that if services are delivered to the YAR it must have a child-centred, developmental approach or model with an ecological perspective. The developmental approach aims at enabling young people to experience themselves as whole and competent, able to make effective decisions for themselves and others, and thereby to progress towards responsible actions and greater sense of well-being (YAR Policy, WCED, 2002: 1-2). This means that learners at risk will be cared for in an environment and manner completely different to those of the past – a 'development and discipline' approach to one of 'control and punishment'.

- **Defining the term "At-Risk"**

The term at risk is widely used by various practitioners in different fields to illustrate how people can become targets of failure. Educators sometimes use this term to refer to

youngsters who are at risk of dropping out of the education system (McWhirter, McWhirter, McWhirter & McWhirter, 1998: 6), learners experiencing behavioural problems or showing disruptive behaviour at school, home or wider community: street- and abused children, youth in conflict with the law, learners with serious disciplinary problems (WCED Conference, March 1999) or disaffected learners (Pickel, 1992: 4-5).

Levin et al. (1993 in Gibson, 1997: 3) look at the concept at-risk differently and call these young people "children in at-risk situations". This is a more positive description. Gibson is also of the opinion that this implies that "their circumstances are not of their own making and in fact are beyond their control".

It is difficult to describe the concept at-risk. McWhirter et al. (1998: 7-9) elect to define it as a series of steps along a continuum. This continuum includes at-riskness from minimal and remote risk to personal behaviour that anticipates imminent risk and finally refers to activities which falls within an at-risk category. The authors explain the different at-riskness as follows:

- **Minimal risk**

Learners whose family are of high socio-economic status, who are exposed to few psychosocial stressors, attend good schools, and have loving, caring relationships with their families and friends are assumed to be at minimal risk for future problems. They cannot be regarded as without risk, because stressors such as divorce, death, etc. can put them at risk.

- **Remote risk**

Remote demographic problems or less positive school, family or social interactions and increased psychosocial stressors such as divorce can put these learners at risk. The demographic characteristics of low socio-economic status and increase drop out rates,

teen pregnancy, using of drugs, etc. can put them further down the line on the continuum of at-riskness.

- **High-risk characteristics**

Dysfunctional families, poor schools, negative social interactions, and numerous psychosocial stressors may push a learner towards at-riskness. A learner's negative attitudes, emotions and behaviours may increase the possibility of becoming at risk. The above authors regard depression, anxiety, aggression, hopelessness, as well as social deficits in social skills and coping behaviours as high-risk characteristics. These characteristics are a sign that learners could internalize problems. In an attempt to deal with it they participate in moderate gateway behaviours such as smoking that could lead to drug abuse.

- **Imminent risk**

As mentioned previously, individual high-risk characteristics often are expressed in gateway behaviours. A child who is aggressive towards other children or adults may become a juvenile delinquent. Although progression through each gate, cigarettes may be a gateway to alcohol, which can be a gateway to marijuana and later a gateway to harder drugs is not certain or predictable, one must be wary, because according to these authors, there are evidence that link gateway behaviours to more serious activities. These learners must be recognized as being imminent risk.

- **At-risk category activity**

Here the learner is fully participating in those activities that define at-risk categories. These authors stress that although literature regards these learners at-risk learners, they have passed beyond risk, because they already exhibit dysfunctional and maladaptive behaviour. Unless intervention is not carefully planned, these learners can carry on with

their delinquent behaviour by committing violent crimes or become drug addicts for life.

- **Youth-at-risk-model**

The YAR, but specifically the learner with emotional and/or behavioural problems, is identified through the manifestation of behavioural difficulties over an extended period of time, which adversely affect his or her education to the extent that the individual cannot benefit from regular learning experiences without special education, therapeutic and/or residential support services.

In order to render special and therapeutic services in a structured and professional way the WCED developed the YAR-model, which they adapted for the educational context from the IMC's four levels continuum of services for young people at risk. The child and Youth Care framework provided the following four levels of support:

Level 1: Prevention Services and programmes

Level 2: Early intervention services and programmes

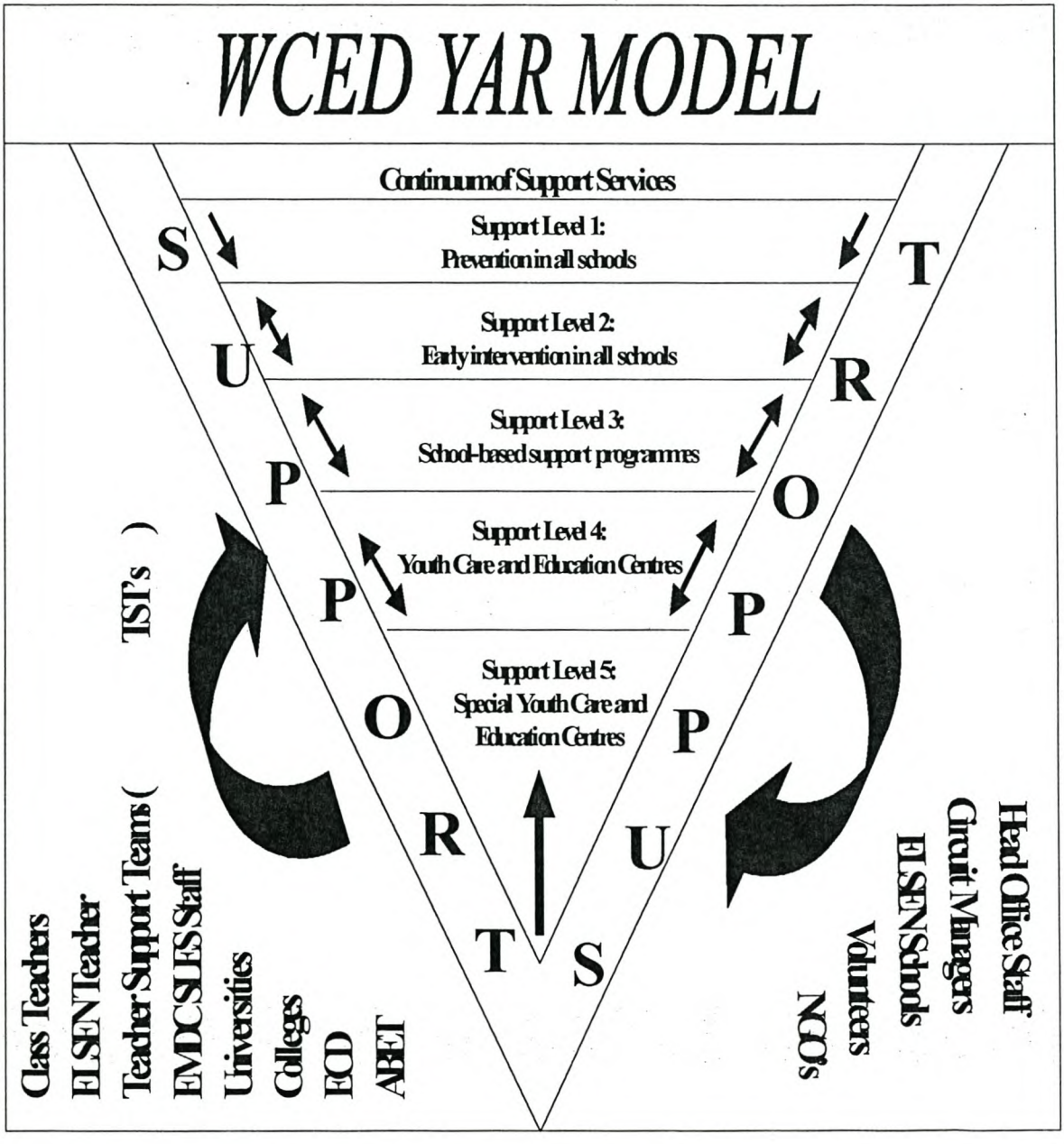
Level 3: Statutory process (temporary care facilities or programmes for young people awaiting court decisions).

Level 4: A continuum of care services to children, young people and their families (ranging from foster care to secure care, including youth care and education centres). This continuum is a range of alternative care interventions offering differentiated programmes that are compatible with the young person's need for protection and/or containment, and for educational, developmental and/or therapeutic programmes.

(Biersteker & Robinson, 2002: 45)

The education model for learners or youth-at-risk, refer to figure 1.2, provides for five levels of support:

Figure 1.2: Youth at Risk Model



Source: WCED, 2002

Support levels 1 to 3 entail emotional support and guidance to youth that are struggling with emotional and/or behavioural problems in the classroom. These levels also entail deliberate intervention and emotional support in relation to a specific young person based on the premise that there is an identified risk of the youth being expelled from school, placed away from home or entering the criminal justice system.

The focus is on the classroom teacher to identify the disruptive learner at an early stage to support him/her through relevant life-skills programmes such as social skills, problem-solving skills, conflict-management skills, substance abuse programmes, working in teams, gender education, peace education, democracy education and the adaption of teaching methods to learner's learning styles and needs in order to create a reclaiming environment. Teaching them effective parental skills to support their children at home will also support parents. These Youth Development Programmes will be delivered by multi-disciplinary teams from the Education-, Management and Developmental Centres (EMDC), Teacher Support Teams and in partnership with Non-Governmental Organizations (NGO's), Community Based Organizations (CBD's), relevant departments and child and welfare agencies.

Should the classroom need further support, the ELSEN educator will withdraw the child with behaviour problems and assist him individually or in a group. After sufficient and effective support the learner will return to the mainstream class.

At level 4 and 5 developmental and therapeutic programmes will cater for the needs of young people at risk and their families, as well as the communities. Secure Care Education and Treatment Centres for adolescents (young people in severe emotional turmoil or in Conflict with the law who may need to be physically and/or behaviourally contained) and Youth Centres will provide specialized multi-disciplinary therapeutic and educational services. Some of these learners will need residential care on different levels of restrictiveness or may access programmes on a day treatment basis, after school hours or weekends.

This YAR-model also supports the Suspension or Expulsion-model of the WCED. Learners at risk of being expelled and learners who are expelled from school may be referred to Youth Care Centres and may access programmes in a flexible way in terms of the policy and procedures governing suspension and expulsion.

The principles underpinning this YAR-model are guided by the principles contained in the policy document of the IMC and the report by the Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Committee on Education Support Services (NCESS) (South Africa, Department of Education, 1997).

The WCED developed additional principles that were incorporated in the model:

- Education takes responsibility for the provision of differentiated educational services promoting holistic development for those young people at risk who are unable to access mainstream education effectively.
- A first priority for Education should be to support young people at risk to enable them to realize their full potential in mainstream education.
- Education shares a responsibility for the prevention and early identification of young people at risk.

Only a few principles are mentioned which are applicable for the purpose of this research.

Again the WCED must be commended for the vision they had to support learners with behaviour- and emotional problems, because these learners are at the increase in our schools. If we do not support these children or implement preventative strategies, as the YAR-model requires, we will face serious problems and these children will be part of special education statistics. Although the model place a strong emphasis on support through prevention, intervention and programmes, effective strategies and guidelines to

teach educators the necessary and vital skills to render this kind of support as spelled out in the model, is not yet in place. Educators in mainstream schools are far from ready and do not have the resources to deal with these children in a preventative way to support them.

Educators need in-depth training to teach learners at risk the necessary skills to overcome their self-deprecating behaviour. If the appropriate training is not provided to educators in mainstream schools, and for certain educators at special schools, and EMDC staff, this model will fail dismally. Nowhere in the model or policy document are clear guidelines or strategies provided that would give an indication on what kind of skills educators need to be empowered with to deal with disruptive behaviour.

Educators need to be trained to acquire the necessary skills to handle behaviour problems, because as Tattum (1986: 1) puts it so clearly that "undiscipline is a fact of school life with which teachers, to a greater or lesser degree, will have to cope; also the interactive nature of human relationships and the very social context that exists in the classrooms. The quality of the context created are vital elements in the process of control and discipline."

Galloway et al. (1982: XV) also emphasize the school's potential influence over it's pupil's behaviour and makes it clear that disruptive behaviour cannot be considered in isolation from the organization and work of the school as a whole.

One can make the assumption that all behaviour problems that occur in a classroom should be placed in context first when one has to deal with it. It is actually worrying that difficult behaviour is still seen as a discipline and classroom control issue and that there is no acknowledging that the learner has a view and that listening to this view could play a key part in solving our behavioural and discipline problems. McNamara, and Morton, (2001: V) is of the opinion that if we have the view that the behaviour is

internal to the child, we dismiss the idea that it could be a product of poor teaching or a narrow range of responses in the teacher and school's behaviour management skills.

As mentioned previously the most behaviour management systems still rest on punishment. We know by now as indicated by the expulsion statistics (WCED, 2002) that these systems do not work with pupils who are constantly in trouble. Past intervention strategies are not successful in changing behaviour.

Pickles (1992: 3) identified two key factors that could be potential triggers for antisocial behaviour: a learner's motivation to participate and the imbalance of power within the institution.

This view is also strengthened by McNamara et al. (2001: VI) who came to the conclusion that there remain very simplistic interpretations of difficult behaviour in terms of both motivation – explanations as to why the pupil is behaving this way; and response – what can be done about it. Educators still feel that if a learner has transgressed the rules he or she should be dealt with. To ask yourself, for example, 'I wonder why this child has done this', is seen as counterproductive. Educators assume that they know what the motivation for bad behaviour is. The assumed assumption is often irrational destruction, which is either destruction of either the planned teaching activity, or the educators themselves.

Schools that still focus on punishment and control will welcome the new policies on expulsion and the YAR, because they are still on the premise that learners who misbehave must be removed. What is actually a concern is that the Youth Centres could easily, as McNamara et al. (2002: VIII) put it, become "Sin Bins". The ideal would be that the YAR policy that the WCED is currently driving should be accompanied by training programmes for educators, which will help them to make the paradigm shift from the 'removal' premise to re-education and inclusion. The education department is not doing enough to train educators to acquire the necessary skills to

develop suitable programmes to change learner's behaviour in situ and eventually to stop the creation of Sin Bins.

To minimize expulsion and referrals to Youth Centres schools must be empowered to develop programmes that will support the learner to change their behaviour within the school or classroom, which is the content in which the behaviour manifests, whether in mainstream or special schools.

The implementation of these programmes is the responsibility of the educators, but educators don't want to take up this responsibility, because they don't regard themselves as agents of social welfare. For them their primary role is to provide learning within a constructive environment. Social and moral development of learners is, therefore, the responsibility of parents and families.

1.3 CONTEXT OF EDUCATORS

Another obstacle in the implementation of these programs is that educators are facing many transformation processes that are taking place in education since 1996. The major transformation process in education that educators had to deal with was:

- The new Curriculum 2005 which underpins the principles of Outcomes-based education (OBE). Outcomes-based education was introduced in 1997. It was designed to foster lifelong learning for all and to develop knowledge, skills, positive values and attitudes.
- The difficulties experienced with Curriculum 2005 resulted it to be adapted to a revised national curriculum (South Africa, Department of Education, May 2000; 2002). This Curriculum was designed to accommodate all learners irrespective of their learning barriers, and in this case, learners with emotional- and behaviour problems.

- Rationalization of educators through the offering of severance packages.
- Adaptation of teacher-learner ratio. The above changes resulted in less manpower, loss of competent and experience educators and which educators had to deal with big classes. In certain areas schools were nowhere near the learner-teacher ratio as planned by the National Education Department. Educators had to deal with classes as big as 50 learners that often created disciplinary problems. This is a very demoralizing situation educators are finding themselves in.
- The implementation of the Developmental Assessment System (DAS) for educators, which deals with personal assessment, assessment by peers and professional accountability. Educators regarded this assessment as an instrument to spy on them. They feel that they are not trusted and that they are regarded as not capable enough to teach.
- Inclusion, as discussed previously (White Paper 6, Department of Education, July 2001).

Educators feel threatened and overwhelmed by all these changes that are almost implemented simultaneously. Because educators had to put strategies in place to manage the transformation in education, they avoid dealing intensively with troubled youth. They are just too busy to deal with other educational issues for example the improvement of examination results, acquiring new teaching methods to cope with OBE, inclusion, etcetera.

Although educators face transformational challenges, they are, forced to spend a great deal of time contending with behaviour problems that interfere with teaching and learning in the classroom. They do not make an effort to also look at other ways and strategies of teaching to cope with disruptive behaviour. In this regard Millman et al. (1981: 2) noted, "that since educators are often poorly trained to cope with behaviour problems, it is not unusual for their methods to be ineffective, negative, and even

physically abusive at times. Rather than helping classroom problems, such discipline methods may actually exaggerate them".

Morse (in Long and Morse, 1996: 418) also supports the idea that the methods used to deal with disruptive behaviour should change and believes that schools are slowly recognizing that their authority base has eroded and that they no longer can make learners change their behaviour or conform to school rules. Staff cannot maintain their authority and use fear of failure, transfer, or exclusion to enforce their decisions. These threats are not effective with troubled youth.

Morse also stresses that during a crisis, it is common for staff to be quick to speak and slow to listen. It is clear that although the need for staff action is important, it does not justify impulsive and unprofessional staff behaviours.

Educators must start to believe in themselves and realize that they have a wealth of experience and knowledge. They must be regarded as powerful change agents that can be tapped into to solve the disciplinary problems they experience in their classrooms. According to Millman et al. (1995: 3) educators are often the first to detect a learner's behaviour problems and are in an unique position to alter that behaviour immediately in the natural environment of the classrooms. Educators, therefore, must strengthen their management skills by learning to deal more effectively with problem behaviours or troubled youth as they occur in the classroom.

The immediate handling of disruptive behaviour as it occurs in the classroom leads to the theory of crisis intervention which provides schools with a significant opportunity to view crisis not as a disaster to be avoided, but as another chance to have a positive and profound impact on the learner's way of thinking, feeling and behaving. Crises are an essential part of a learner's life. If used therapeutically, they can result in new coping skills, an improved ability to adapt, and a better learner-staff relationship. With training, then, staff can learn to be quick to listen, and when they talk, it should be in a

non-threatening way that is intended to de-escalate the learner's crisis as well as provide the learner with protection, support, and respect (Long and Morse, 1996: 418).

1.4 DEALING WITH CRISIS

To de-escalate the learner's crisis, the Life Space Crisis Intervention Model (LSCI) was developed out of the Life Space Interview theory of Redl Wineman and Morse in the 1950's and 1960's. The LSCI was further refined by Long and his colleagues to support educators to teach learners coping skills (Long and Morse, 1996: 437-438).
Wood and Long (1990: 1) described Life Space Intervention as a verbal intervention strategy to be used immediately when learners are experiencing a crisis. Crises, according to Meese (1996: 288) develop as "the result of a child's unsuccessful attempts to deal with situational stress" and it is regarded as the perfect time to teach the learners how to solve problems and how to cope in difficult situations. When the child is in crisis it is seen as a perfect opportunity for growth, because emotions are on the surface and motivation to change may be at its highest.

LSCI is a structured strategy that provides educators with specific skills to manage the crises of learners who show six common patterns of self-defeating behaviours effectively. LSCI is also a strength-based approach of problem-solving. It has been enhanced and intensified to meet the new social concerns about the increase on learner's aggression, hostility and violence in schools (Long and Morse, 1996: 438). The dynamics of the conflict cycle is also greatly emphasized in this approach.

Long et al. (1998: 4) looked critically at the six stages of the Life Space Crisis Intervention process and highlighted the effectiveness of the educators during each stage. The first three stages are structured in such a way to help the educator to determine or to examine the problem. The last three stages are developed to help the educator to find a solution in partnership with the learner.

Long and Morse (1996: 440-442), outlined the stages in the following way to guide the educator through the support process:

Stage 1: Student crisis stage and staff's de-escalation skills

Educators help the learner to focus on the incident. Active-reflective listening skills are used to convey support and understanding, to reduce the emotional intensity of the situation or to drain off the learner's angry feelings to the point where his/her behaviour is driven by rational processes and not emotions. This is done to open a dialogue.

During their research Long et al. (1998: 14) found that 80% of educators were successful in de-escalating the learner's crisis.

Stage 2: Student Timeline Stage and Staff's Relationship Skills

After the learner has calmed down, the learner is assisted to give a detailed step-by-step account of the entire incident. This process should start at a point when the problem did not exist. Attending, active listening, observing and responding skills should be used to clarify the learner's perception of events. A thorough review of the time, place and people involved in the incident must be gained.

According to Long et al. (1998: 14) only 72% of educators obtained a reasonable sequence of the learner's crisis.

Stage 3: Student Central Issue Stage and Staff's Differential Diagnosis Skills

The educator must analyze the learner's perception of the problem as well as the learner's insight and motivation to change. The educator attempts to determine the

central issue based on the learner's perception of events and what his/her patterns of behaviour were in similar situations. The educator must determine if it was merely a situational conflict or was it an exhibition of the learner's chronic pattern of perceiving, thinking and feeling. Based on this knowledge the educator selects a therapeutic goal.

Long et al. (1998: 14) found that only 46% of the staff were able to define the central issue of the learner's crisis.

Stage 4: Learner's Insight Stage and Staff's Clinical Skills

In this stage it is expected of staff to carry out the appropriate intervention, which should lead to some learner's insight regarding his or her pattern of self-defeating behaviour and to learn more effective social skills. The learner must be helped to commit to the solution. What will the learner see as a satisfactory solution that can be owned?

The research revealed that only 15% of the staff was able to use the learner's crisis for an opportunity to teach and for the learner to experience some awareness of or insight into his or her pattern of self-defeating behaviour.

Stage 5: The Learner New-Skill Stage and Staff's Empowering Skills

At this stage it is expected of the learner to rehearse new behaviours and to anticipate consequences. The educator must discuss the possibility of discomfort when the learner tries out the new behaviour for the fist time. How will the learner deal with the possibility of a less-than desired outcome? The potential benefits of the new behaviour should be affirmed. The commitment and the positive results what hard work can bring must be reviewed within the learner.

Here the research revealed that only 10% of the staff was able to identify and teach the appropriate social skills the learner needed to prevent a similar crisis from occurring.

Stage 6: Learner Transfer-of-Training Stage and the Staff's Follow-up Skills.

Important in this stage is that the educator must make the learner aware that he has to participate with a group again. Certain expectations, for example, what is the ongoing activity that the learner will be expected to join and what rules and expectations are in place, must be worked through with the learner.

It is expected of the educator to prepare the learner for reactions of the peer group when he or she re-enters the classroom and the handling of possible problems he might anticipate.

Support and follow-up is vital at this stage. The learner needs to be supported to make a successful attempt at using the new behaviour modification plan. All colleagues that will be involved with the learner should be involved to let them know what to expect and how to encourage the new behaviour.

Shockingly, the research revealed that only 6% of the staff was able to provide effective guidance for the re-entering of the learner into the classroom, and to consult with the classroom teacher to help reinforce any of the social skills that should be demonstrated by the learner.

The above research is a clear indication that educators do not have the ability to teach learners insight into the nature of their problems and self-defeating behaviour. It also demonstrates that there is a huge need to train educators to acquire the necessary skills to develop proper programmes to support learners in addressing their disruptive behaviour.

This research (Long, et al., 1998) showed that educators were not very successful in implementing the LSCI in the last three stages, namely the reclaiming stages. ***Although the aim of the LSCI strategy is to motivate learners to change by teaching educators skills to use crisis as an opportunity to handle conflict, research showed that the low success rate can be attributed to the fact that educators lack the skills to use the learner's crisis as an opportunity for insight.*** This research will, therefore, only focus on the necessary strategies in dealing with difficult behaviour.

1.5 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Educators lack the strategies to teach learners the appropriate skills to deal effectively with their self-destructive behaviour.

1.6 AIM OF STUDY

To develop guidelines and strategies for educators to teach learners practical skills to solve problems around the central issues of:

- Anti-social behaviour
- Peer manipulation
- Impulsivity and guilt

1.7 RESEARCH METHOD

Literature study as a research method will be used. Mertens (1998: 33) regards literature study as an important research tool, especially in emerging areas with populations that typically yield small samples for e.g. special education research.

The literature study for this research will, as Gay (1987: 36) puts it, "involves the systematic identification, location, and analysis of documents containing information related to the research problem". The researcher will do a literature review on various researches done on disruptive behaviour, and the three central issues: antisocial behavior with no guilt, peer manipulation and impulsive behaviour. The researcher will also try to establish what kind of approaches and strategies have already been developed to teach learners the necessary skills to deal with their disruptive behaviour.

The purpose of the literature review, therefore, is to provide a conceptual framework for establishing the importance of the research and to relate it to the available literature (Mertens, 1998: 34; Gay, 1987: 36). With this knowledge the researcher not only avoids unintentional duplication, but it also provides the understanding and insights necessary to develop a logical framework into which the three central issues fit.

The researcher will also use literature study, as Mertens (1998: 34) explains it, as an end in itself. A qualitative research method could not be used, because qualitative researchers are "interested in understanding the meaning people have constructed, that is, how they make sense of their world and the experiences they have in the world" (Merriam, 1998: 6). The researcher could not approach educators to conduct interviews, observe, develop questionnaires and case studies, because educators are not so familiar with the intervention strategy, Life Space Crisis Intervention, which forms the basis of this research. As previously mentioned, only a small percentage of educators who use this strategy were successful in implementing it.

In chapter three the researcher will use the literature review to explain the topic of the research and to build a rationale for the problem that has been identified, namely that educators lack the skills to teach learners skills to handle their disruptive behaviour.

1.8 DEFINITIONS OF THE CENTRAL ISSUES

1.8.1 Antisocial behaviour with no guilt

According to Walker, Calvin and Ramsey (1995: 1), "antisocial is the opposite of pro-social, which is composed of cooperative, positive, and mutually reciprocal social behaviours. Antisocial behaviour suggests hostility to others, aggression, a willingness to common rule infractions, defiance of adult authority, and violation of the social norms and morals of society". They cast themselves into the role of victims and frequently receive secondary pleasure and status from their peer group, are narcissistic, and believe nothing is wrong with them.

What distinguishes this learner from other learners with behaviour problems is their lack of guilt, self-centeredness and rigid pride. Guilt requires that one consider the consequences of behaviour. Consequences do not influence their behavior. They persist in their misdeeds despite feedback or punishment from others, and they seldom feel remorse and shame (Boucher, 1999: 49; Long and Fecser, 2000: 95).

The aim or goal of the intervention strategy would be to have them realize that they are too smart to continue their self-defeating behaviour and to expose their self-deception slowly while still maintaining a caring relationship. The staff will confront them every time they try to justify their aggression (Long and Fecser, 2000: 93; Long and Morse, 1996: 446).

1.8.2 Vulnerability to peer manipulation and influence

This central issue refers to an unwilling participation in wrong doing by falling into manipulative traps. This learner is entangled in peer destructive relationships and vulnerable to manipulation.

Here we can identify two types of manipulation:

- The learner feels neglected, isolated, or are loners and develop a self-defeating friendship with an explosive classmate. In this relationship, the dependent learner frequently maintains the relationship by acting out his "friend's" inappropriate wishes; or
- Are 'set up' and 'controlled' by a bright passive aggressive learner: In this relationship the aggressive learner is unaware of being manipulated by the passive aggressive classmate and reacts inappropriately to the provocation.

The aim of the intervention strategy will be to demonstrate that:

- A friend is someone who will help and make life better, not worse. A friend doesn't exploit willingly.
- The aggressive learner is giving his or her controls and freedom to the manipulative aggressive learner when the aggressive learner reacts to the provocation (Long and Fecser, 2000: 122; Long and Morse, 1996: 448-449).

1.8.3 Impulsivity and guilt

The intervention strategies that are to be developed will be applicable to learners who act out impulsively and then feel guilty about their behaviour, and/or learners who are burdened by feelings of remorse, shame, inadequacy, and seek out additional forms of

punishment to cleanse their guilt. Frequently these learners have a history of abuse, neglected, abandoned, and deprived, and have a low self-esteem.

This intervention strategy will aim to make the learner:

- Aware that they have more self-control than they realize.
- Accept the belief that accidents happen, that they can make mistakes and poor decisions without feeling they are worthless.
- To listen to and improve their self-control system. (Long and Fecser, 2000: 105; Long and Morse, 1996: 446-447).

1.9 SUMMARY

The concern is that so many educators still regard disruptive youth as problem children that are intellectually or constitutionally defective. They believe that there is no treatment for them, it is impossible to educate them and that the best possible way to deal with them is to segregate and punish them.

In chapter two this paradigm will be challenged where it is explained how one can support the disruptive learner by using the LSCI as an intervention strategy. This strategy was developed to help educators to help and support learners to deal with their self-defeating behaviours effectively. In chapter three a brief overview of current intervention practices to deal with disruptive behaviour will be given. Chapter four will discuss skills educators need to implement the LSCI strategy effectively. Chapter five will give a detailed outline on what learners need to deal with their self-deprecating behaviour and what strategies educators can teach them to become more resilient.

CHAPTER 2

A BRIEF OVERVIEW: LIFE SPACE CRISIS INTERVENTION

In the past many educationists and psychologists have designed programmes to deal with disruptive youth. According to Long, Fecser & Brendtro (1998: 6) these "traditional approaches to troubled youth are inherently pessimistic and reactive, and keyed to the deviance and dysfunction of youth". The attitudes of troubled youth that are developed in their family or community brings them in constant conflict with educators. Redl (1957, in Long, et al., 1998: 6) described these children who hate as caught up in patterns of distorted private logic and maladaptive coping strategies.

Many troubled youth distrust adults and engage in patterns of coercive interactions and conflict cycles. They never learn to regard adults as a support base that can guide them through their young life. They rather become manipulators and reject adults who are trying to help. It is then senseless for counselors to use the traditional deficit approach to deal with disruptive youth.

Educationists realized how harmful the "deficit approach" could be and started to use Life Space Crisis Intervention (LSCI) as a strategy to deal with disruptive youth. LSCI, as explained in Table 1, employs a strength-based approach of problem-solving (Long, et al., 1998: 7).

Table 2.1: Approaches to youth problems

Traditional	LSCI
The Adult's Approach	**The Youth's Response**
Searching for deficits	Increased resistance
Searching for strengths and solutions	Increased co-operation

Source: Long et al. (1998: 7)

The focus of LSCI is on understanding the reasons for counterproductive conflict cycles. Through LSCI a careful analysis of crises that negatively impacted on the youth are worked through with the youth (Long, et al. 1998: 8).

Wood & Long (1991: XI) believes that LSCI sets a theory, which is about communicating with children who are in a crisis. Communication is the key – this cannot be over emphasized. The LSCI process that could be applied in many situations can be applied very effectively in the classroom as it does not rely on any equipment. The only requirement being, a skilled and sympathetic educator.

An adult who assumes the responsibility of dealing with a person in crisis must bear in mind that he/she has a vitally important role to fulfill. He can only deal with the problem effectively if he has in place verbal strategies, which does not only resolve the immediate situation, but can also bring about long-lasting solution to the problem of the learner.

The way in which the adult handles the crisis is extremely important. If a crisis situation is approached in a skilful professional manner, positive and long-term benefits could be achieved. In stark contrast a mismanaged crisis could result in an ever widening gulf between educator and learner who might become more aggressive, hostile and filled with a greater sense of rejection (Long & Wood, 1991: X1).

Wood & Long (1991: XII) believe in the power and effectiveness of Life Space Intervention (LSI) as a crisis intervention strategy with long-term benefits in the lives and personalities of learners who partake.

They also believe that once an adult learns to see a crisis through the eyes of the learner, greater empathy, support, realistic problem solving, and behavioural self-control can occur. When an effective LSI is done, a crisis situation that could otherwise end up as destructive and deprecating experience for the learner instead becomes an instructional and insightful experience.

The verbal strategies are based on in-depth clinical interviewing skills developed from Fritz Redl's (1959, in Wood & Long, 1991: XIII) concept about Life Space Interviewing. Redl described the LSI process "as a mediating role between the child and what life holds for him. The intent is to convey the adult as mediator among stress, the learner's behaviour, the reactions of others, and the private world of feelings that learners are sometimes unable to handle without help".

William Morse (1981, in Wood & Long, 1991: XII) describes LSCI as an ongoing life experience, which is linked directly to a learner's past experiences. Morse is of the opinion that LSCI could be interpreted as "future oriented and about resolutions". He further believes that the development of a young person's self-esteem is influenced by his current behaviour, his emotional state, distortions, attributions, expectations, values and hopes for the future.

2.1. LSCI IN ACTION / CRISIS INTERVENTION IN SCHOOLS

The aim of crisis intervention is to provide coping skills that the learner can apply on a long-term basis. LSCI advocates the support of a learner when he is in a crisis or stressful situation.

Although it is good to use the crisis as an opportunity to teach, it is not always possible to use a stressful situation to teach. Learners are not always ready to learn how to cope in a socially acceptable fashion. When a learner is experiencing a crisis he/she is in emotional turmoil and is looking for ways to deal with this turmoil. Because the learner

is in need, we cannot avoid teaching something at the time of crisis, because the learner is always learning something (Morse, in Long, et al., 1996: 420).

From 1993 to 1997 Nicholas Long (Long, et al., 1998: 7-9) served as a psychological consultant to staff of the New York City Public Schools to explore ways of reducing the frequency and the intensity of school-wide student crises. A school-wide crisis was defined as a conflict that escalated into an explosive situation. During such a conflict emotional levels were high which clouded any sensible reasoning and lead to physical restrainment of a learner. During his first year of consultation 80 such school-wide crises were selected and reviewed, resulting in these findings.

2.1.1 School crises do not happen by appointment

Long discovered that school crises happened at the least convenient times for the staff. A crisis most commonly occurred during the first 40 minutes of a school day; in between periods when learners are changing classes; and when the staff did not see the initial precipitating incident, but had to intervene and stop some dangerous behaviours.

2.1.2 During a crisis, educators rely on their personal authority

When school staff found themselves in a confrontational situation, with a learner, they frequently relied on the powers of their authority to encourage a learner to change his or her behaviour and to abide by the school rules. What emerged was that these learners had little respect for authority and were not easily intimidated. The use of authority and teacher threats as a management technique not only was ineffective, but also escalated the conflict. According to Long & Kelly (in Long & Fecser, 2000: 132) teacher authority works for most normal, socialized learners. These learners, because they are more in control, try to handle or live with it. For Long & Kelly this cannot be said of "high risk" and emotionally troubled learners. When these learners become upset,

frustrated and angry and use inappropriate or defiant language, their educators are often not prepared or are not able to manage their verbal behaviours in a calm and professional way. Instead, they react impulsively and in counter-aggressive ways.

Educators rely on their powers of authority, because according to Wood & Long (1991) they do not have the skills:

- To guide young people through stressful experiences,
- To help young people to make sense out of the ineptness and meanness they see around them,
- To help them to make the most of themselves,
- To help them to view situations in which they have messed up.

Educators have the responsibility to address the above problems. The LSCI strategy is a tool to help educators to teach learners to deal constructively with stress when in crisis. The ultimate goal is to help learners to understand and take responsibility for their behaviour rather than simply be coerced into superficial behaviour compliance. Change in their dissocial behaviour should produce constructive and long-lasting results.

2.1.3 School crisis are triggered by a minor incident

Long found that minor inappropriate behaviour such as not staying on task, walking around the classroom, teasing peers, etc. are always the first start of a crisis. In most situations, the teacher did not start or initiate the conflict, but they often responded in a style that fueled the conflict and kept it going. They often used words that inflamed the learner's anger, triggered a confrontation and depreciated self-esteem. During such a teacher/learner exchange, the staff were quick to speak, slow to listen and reluctant to use positive behaviour management techniques.

Morse (in Long, et al., 1996: 420) pointed out an interesting dilemma in his research, namely "is the crisis in the eye of the "crisis" or in the eye of others around him, particularly the teacher?" He believes many crisis situations may have no meaning as far as the individual primarily involved is concerned. It is the crisis to the teacher who is the consumer of the behaviour. The teacher is most eager to engage in a problem-solving effort at such a time, but as mentioned above their intervention will turn the situation into a conflict situation.

Educators must learn to understand that a crisis is precipitated as Morse puts it (in Long, et al., 1996: 420) "by overlooking the learners capacity to cope." The crisis might be generated by external demands in the environment such as the academic or behaviour tasks he was given or it may be in consequence of internal perceptions, distorted or accurate. Educators will have to empower themselves with new or different strategies and learn to see the conflict from the learner's point of view, because the learner's coping failure is of such intensity that traditional strategies and approaches cannot support the learner adequately.

Caplan states (in Long, et al., 1996: 421) that a crisis "is a relatively sudden onset of dis-equalibrium in a student where previous functioning was known to be stable. These are states of turmoil." This emphasizes the fact that if a teacher approaches the problem correctly he could produce drastic changes that would otherwise be impossible. It is important that educators get a holistic picture of the situation before he/she intervenes.

2.1.4 Staff become caught in the conflict cycle

Wood & Long (1991: 33) explain that a way to look at crisis is to see it as a product of a learner's stress, kept alive by the reactions of others. When a learner is in a stressful situation certain painful feelings will arise. His behaviour that is usually viewed as negative by others is of such a nature to counter these painful feelings. Because adults or peers view his behaviour as negative or disruptive, their reaction toward the learner is

negative. This negative reaction causes additional stress for the learner. This is called the Conflict Cycle (Wood & Long, 1991: 33).

Long et al. (1998: 9) see the Conflict Cycle as a basic paradigm that explains why normal, healthy, reasonable educators can behave in ways that are significantly different from their personalities. During stressful times, a troubled youth can influence a teacher's behaviour in such a way that dysfunctional feelings are created in the adult.

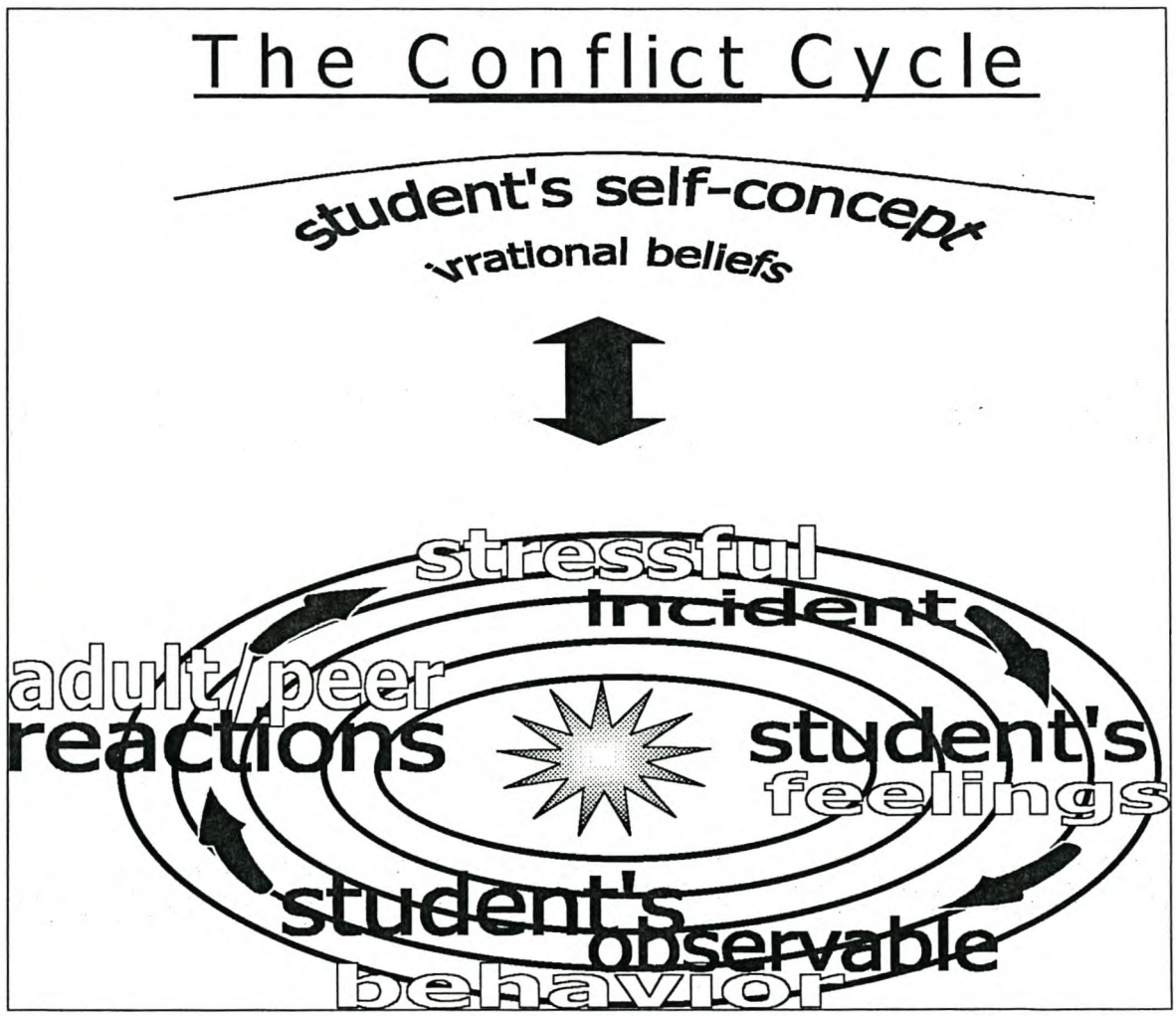
It is therefore, according to Brown, McDowel & Smith (1981: 160) very important that a teacher understands why mental health is an important part of therapeutic management so that he can focus on what the learner is doing to him that causes him to perpetuate or intensify the learner's emotional problems.

The conflict cycle is also a way of looking at a crisis by analyzing the interactions among a learner's feelings, behaviour, and the reactions of others in the environment. If this cycle, produced by these actions and reactions, is not broken it will inevitably explode into a crisis. It is very important for educators to understand the dynamics of the Conflict Cycle, because it demonstrates how a learner can create identical feelings in educators. Adults who act on their feelings and do what feels naturally inadvertently mirror the learners' behaviour and make the crisis worse. Many educators end up being counter aggressive and tell a defiant learner, "You said you won't do it and I'm telling you, you will do it". Brown et al. (1981: 160) find it fascinating and alarming to know how emotionally disturbed learners can get educators to take on their personalities and behaviours during emotional conflicts and why many of the behaviour modification techniques are not used during moments of interpersonal conflicts.

As mentioned previously to understand this painful interaction, Long et al. (1998: 10) has developed a paradigm called the conflict cycle. In figure 2.1 the conflict cycle illustrates how the transaction between learner and teacher follows a circular process in which attitudes, feelings and behaviours of the teacher is influenced by the attitudes,

feelings of the learners. During a stressful incident, this circular process becomes a stress or conflict cycle, creating additional problems for the learner and the teacher. Once in operation, this negative interaction between learner and teacher is extremely difficult to interrupt.

Figure 2.1: The Conflict Cycle



Source: Long et al. (1998: 10)

2.1.4.1 The sequence of the Conflict Cycle

The way the stress of a learner is kept alive by the negative reactions of others can be described in the following way (Long, et al., 1998: 9-11; Long & Wood, 1991: 33–47; Brown, et al., 1981: 164-167):

- Stressful incident

Schools make unique demands on each learner, setting expectations to conform, achieve, share, perform, produce, and bend to the will of others. Endless scenarios exist that illustrate the stress promoted in schools. Long & Wood (1991: 38-39) give a few examples of stress producing situations that occur daily in our classrooms:

- Personal put-down
- Failure to do something correctly
- Failure with friends
- Ridicule and derision
- Scape-goating
- Being left out
- Infringements on rights
- Failure of justice
- Deprivation of a valued object or opportunity
- Confusion
- Boredom
- Confinement
- Not understanding of what is expected
- Threats of harm
- Expectations beyond capacity

The consequences of the above mentioned stress-producing situations can lead to embarrassment, restrictions, punishment, deprivation or denial of opportunity. The consequences to live up to the expectations of others can be subtle and psychological: estrangement, rejection, disapproval, or a judgement of being unworthy. A troubled learner's irrational beliefs are triggered (e.g. "Nothing good ever happens to me; Adults are unfair!") which in turn defines it as a stressful incident. When the expectations of others and a learner's personal needs or beliefs and feelings collide, the tension becomes so great that stress occurs.

- Private realities

According to Long et al. (1998: 11) these negative beliefs and thoughts determine and trigger the intensity of the learner's feelings. It is important to know that each incident has a private reality for each individual involved. Long & Wood (1991: 40) is of the opinion that private realities are among the most powerful forces that drive individual behaviour, forming a portion of personality and specific behavioural responses. They also believe that it is here, in the personal storehouse of thoughts, feelings, and anxieties, that memories of previous experiences are filed away with emotional notations. These emotions lie and wait for expression and can be triggered by stress from even the smallest, insignificant event. Understanding this private dimension of a learner is central to an effective LSCI.

Brown et al. (1980: 162) is of the opinion many pupils are taught that certain feelings are bad and unacceptable and that a "healthy" adolescent should not have these feelings. When this occurs, learners who have these unacceptable feelings either deny them, project or give them to others, or reorganize them so that they are acted out in disguised forms. Since feelings are a natural and intrinsic part of a human, it must be the goal of the teacher to help every learner recognize his own feelings. Learners need to distinguish between their feelings and their behaviour. For example it is healthy to feel guilty when you behave in a way that you know is unacceptable, but not to act so that

others will punish you. Our biggest problem is the way learners express these feelings in behaviour.

- Acting out

These intense feelings – not the learner's rational forces – drive his or her inappropriate behaviours. Children learn to express their feelings by acting them out, to defend them against something and to accept and own them (Long, et al., 1998: 11; Long (in Long & Morse, 1996: 156).

- Feelings of stress

When learners react to feelings of stress by expressing them directly or by defending against them, they usually create additional problems for themselves at school. Behaviours such as hitting, running away, stealing, teasing, lying, hyperactivity, fighting, using drugs, inattentiveness, and withdrawal cause learners to have difficulty with educators, peers, learning and school rules. The inappropriate behaviours for example yelling, sarcasm, refusing to speak, etc. incite adults. Brown et al. (1980: 165) explain that when a learner dumps his feelings of hostility he has for his father on his teacher, an inevitable learner-teacher problem develops. Educators must be able to interpret the behaviour of learners, because the problems learners cause in school do not necessarily reflect the causes of their problems. Brown also states that the problems learner's cause at school could be a result of the way they have learned to cope with stress.

Wood & Long (1991: 42) call these acting out defensive behaviours, because they are attempts by "learners to protect or insulate themselves from the feelings and anxieties evoked by the stress of an event."

- Mirror the behaviour

Adults not only pick up the feelings of the learner, but also they frequently mirror the learner's behaviour by yelling back, threaten, etc. Initially the staff had no thoughts or intentions of yelling, threatening or hitting the troubled learner. But once the cycle of counter-aggression begins, it is extremely difficult for a teacher to stop or acknowledge their role in escalating the conflict. The learner now has to deal with the teacher's rejection and anger in addition to the original stress. For an adult to respond with any counter-aggressive behaviour is self-defeating. According to Brendtro et al. (1990: 63) an important skill for educators to acquire "is to avoid being lured into counter-aggression with difficult youngsters". These learners have a negative or distorted view of the world, because they struggle to meet certain unfulfilled needs. The increase level of stress escalates the conflict into self-defeating crisis.

Rigid and unrealistic teacher expectations will also cause the normal learner to act out, because they react by acting out or show passive aggression to the autocratic and repressive classroom atmosphere.

Sometimes educators are in a bad mood and can show counter-aggression. These educators are often competent, dedicated and supportive, but it could be that they experience personal problems on a specific day and this could lead them to overreact to a learner's annoying behaviour. Frequently a teacher will prejudge a learner in a crisis, because the learner has already been labeled as a trouble maker. Judgements are made that are not true and the targeted learner is accused of some act he did not do. This upsets the learner and the result is an unfortunate incident that escalates into an ugly crisis.

- Self-fulfilling prophecy

Although the learner may loose this battle (i.e. he or she is punished) the learner wins the war! His or her self-fulfilling prophecy (irrational beliefs about adults) is reinforced. Therefore, the learner has no motivation to change or alter the irrational beliefs or the inappropriate behaviours. The self-fulfilling prophecy according to Wood & Long (1996: 249) is the learner's way of validating irrational beliefs by getting staff or peers to act them out. Most educators and peers are unaware of this covert goal of troubled learners and end up fulfilling the learner's prophecy about life. Educators are unaware that they are fueling and inadvertently strengthening the negative behaviours. The Conflict Cycle, according to Brendtro et al. (1990: 63) becomes "a type of reverse behaviour modification where the adult models the maladaptive behaviour of the youth".

If the Conflict Cycle reaches this level, there is actually no winner. The Conflict Cycle cannot be broken by asking a learner in stress to shape up an act more maturely. If change is to occur, it must begin with the teacher and not the learner.

The teacher must accept responsibility for acting in a mature, professional manner. This means understanding how learners in stress can incite concerned, reasonable, and dedicated educators to act in impulsive, emotional and/or rejecting ways. The teacher's task is therefore to make sure the learner's belief that the teacher is there to hurt, deprecate, and fail him is not fulfilled (Morse in Long, et al., 1995: 420; Brown, et al., 1980: 166).

Figure 2.2 gives an overview of the sequences of the Conflict Cycle. This will help the teacher to understand the dynamic nature of this Conflict Cycle:

Figure 2.2: Sequences of the Conflict Cycle

How troubled student creates counteraggressive feelings in staff which frequently leads to a mutual, self-defeating power struggle and reinforces the student's irrational beliefs, i.e., self-fulfilling prophecy

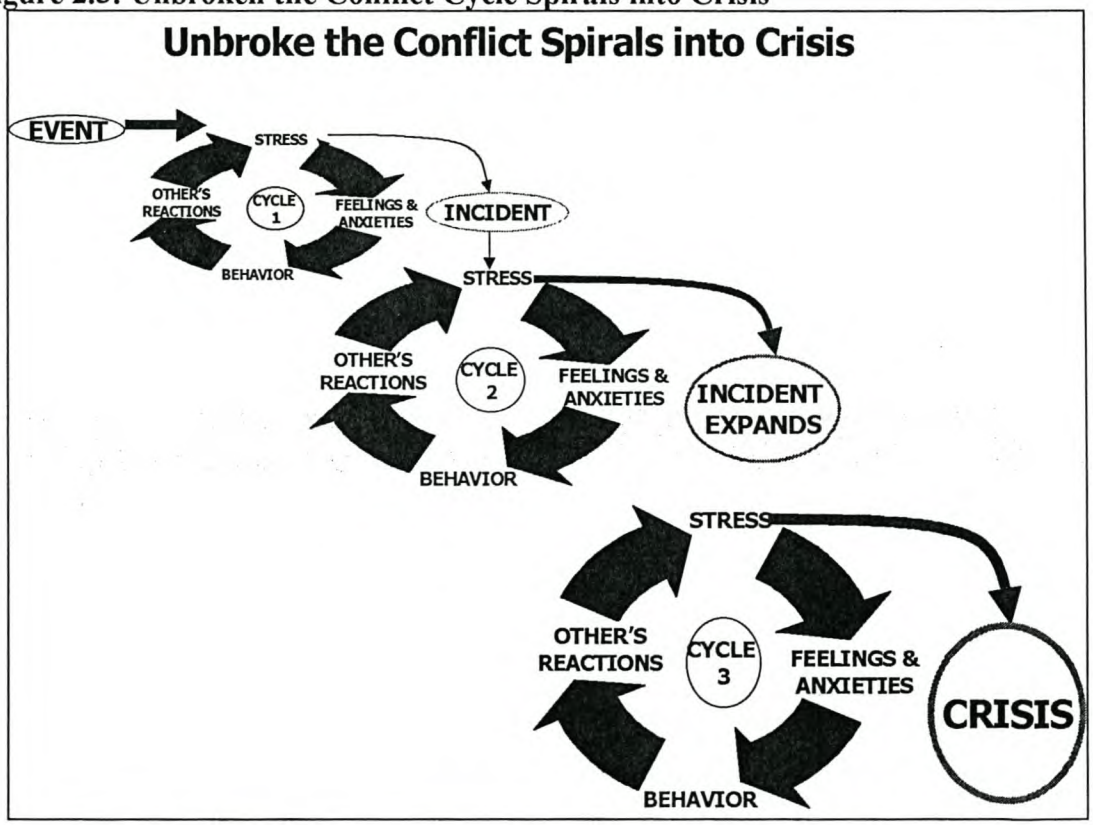
1. A stressful incident occurs (i.e., frustration, failure) which **ACTIVATES** a troubled student's irrational beliefs (i.e., "Nothing good ever happens to me!" "Adults are hostile!", etc.)
2. These negative thoughts determine and **TRIGGER** his feelings.
3. His negative feelings and not his rational forces **DRIVE** his inappropriate behaviour.
4. His inappropriate behaviours (yelling, threatening, sarcasm, refusing to speak) **INCITE** staff.
5. Staff, not only pick up the student's negative feelings but also the frequently **MIRROR** the student's behaviour (yelling, threatening, sarcasm, and refusing to talk to him.
6. This adverse staff **REACTION** increases the student's stress, triggers more intense feelings, drives more inappropriate behaviours, causing even more staff anger and denunciation. Around and around it goes until the Conflict Cycle becomes a self-defeating power struggle.
7. Although the student may lose the initial battle (i.e., is punished, rejected), he wins the psychological war! His SELF-FULFILLING PROPHESY, (i.e., irrational beliefs are **REINFORCED**, and therefore he has no motivation to change, or alter his irrational beliefs or his inappropriate behaviours.)

Long et al (1998: 13)

Wood & Long (1991: 33) explain it clearly how the Conflict Cycle spirals if the first cycle is not interrupted or redirect. According to these educationists the nature of the stress changes, different feelings may be unleashed, new behavioural defenses are called into play, and reactions from others expand in intensity. The result is a crisis, critical moment demanding action.

If the incident is left without attending to it, a crisis will occur. It has an intensity and urgency that come from the emotions it arouses in the learner and those who are involved. As mentioned previously, a crisis can develop from a minor incident that has spiraled. One cycle, uninterrupted, leads to another, and yet another; depths of stored feelings and evoking behaviour increasingly driven by emotional rather than rational processes. In figure 2.3 the whole process of an unbroken Conflict Cycle is illustrated and how stress or crisis is established.

Figure 2.3: Unbroken the Conflict Cycle Spirals into Crisis



Wood & Long (1991: 35)

2.2 WHAT IS STRESS OR A CRISIS

As mentioned before, it is when a learner experience stress and how the teacher reacts to the stress that conflict arise. Stress, as defined by Brown et al. (1980: 161), "is a personal and subjective reaction to a specific life event, causing the individual to experience physiological discomfort". Stress can be experienced not only in response to real situations but also to anticipated and imagined ones resulting into irrational beliefs.

As educators we must help learners view stress as normal, natural and accepted way of life. The usefulness of stress, according to Brown, depends on its frequency, intensity and duration. Too much stress overwhelms youth with emotional problems, causing psychological panic and thinking disorders. Through LSI educators can support these youth to master stress so that learners can experience feelings of competence, success and positive self-esteem.

2.3. STRESS OR CRISES CAN BE CAUSED BY THE FOLLOWING:

During Long's term as a consultant at the New York City Public Schools he came to the conclusion, after careful analysis of the crises, that the crises all followed the same sequence of behaviour, but that they developed from different sources (Long, et al., 1998: 11):

2.3.1 Normal developmental issues or stress

Developmental stress refers to all the normal crises from birth to death e.g. to be born is stressful, to learn to read is stressful. For adolescents there are numerous developmental stresses such as becoming independent, developing personal values as opposed to group values, etc. (Brown, et al., 1988: 162).

Long worked in urban schools and he discovered that for the kids to grow up in an urban society can be very stressful. Just like Brown and his colleagues, he also came to the conclusion that well-adjusted learners can become temporarily upset when their attempts to become independent, win group approval, develop ethical values and seek intimate relationships is not going the way it should go. When this happen they become overwhelmed by their feelings of disappointment, shame, excitement and sadness, and can gain if educators provide them with skillful interventions. These learners can thrive on these kind of support which demonstrates that crisis intervention is not restricted to troubled children and youth.

If skillful interventions are lacking the expectations of others, according to Wood & Long (1991: 39) and a learner's personal needs and feelings collide, the tension becomes so great that stress occurs.

2.3.2 Situational forces at school

The dynamics and activities at a school can cause stress in a learner's life. This has nothing to do with personality of the learner. The learner has distorted patterns of thinking and can misinterpret interpersonal comments and can be teased or bullied by a group. Frustration can build up, because of the inability to complete an assignment or being falsely accused of an act and confused by the directions of educators. When the learner experiences these stressors and it erupts in a crisis he/she will need all the support they can get. Important is that they must understand the crisis to benefit from it.

2.3.3 Psychological stress / unresolved psychological issues

This consists of conscious and deliberate attempts by individuals, group, and institutions that systematically and consistently destroy the worth of the individual. For example, many adolescents are told that they are unwanted, that they are the source of their parent's problems, that they spoil the family and neighbourhood, because of their

demands and behaviours. They are told that they are stupid, dumb, infantile inconsiderable, ungrateful, and totally useless to themselves and others. For some pupils the stress does not come from open rejection, but from trying to meet unrealistic standards. Learners are told they must be perfect to be loved.

They must be smarter, more responsible, socially mature, and more loving than they are capable of being. For others, the psychological stress is related to specific adults who are socially maladjusted. For example, an alcoholic or drug-abusing parent, who creates a home where there is little consistence, causes the pupil to feel confused, guilty, and ambivalent about life. The learner never knows if the parent will be available to care for him or her or whether the parent will expose him/her to everything from exhibitionism, physical or sexual abuse to desertion and/or suicide.

Any sibling, relative or significant friend who is emotionally disturbed will have a profound effect on the pupil's ability to focus on classroom learning (Long & Morse, 1996: 252; Brown, et al., 1988: 163).

During his reign as an consultant for New York Public School, Long came to the conclusion that at-risk and troubled learners cannot separate the emotional problems they have experienced at home and in the community from the current problems they have at school. The slightest frustration or disappointment can remind them of unpleasant past experiences and trigger characteristic patterns of self-defeating behaviours. This is the most severe and complicated form of conflict, because the learner may have the same feelings which he had when he was abandoned, rejected or abused.

2.3.4 Economic or physical stress

Millions of families are living on the brink of economic disaster. For the chronically poor, economic stress shows itself in poor diet, lack of privacy, limited opportunity to

participate in social and school related activities, greater parent exhaustion and conflict; parent models of joblessness and helplessness; social isolation from the mainstream of society; a sense of being different from the norm; lack of acceptable clothing and lack of privacy/sleep (Wood & Long, 1996: 252; Brown, et al., 1988: 162).

2.3.5 Reality stress

This consists of all the unplanned events that frustrate the personal goals of the adolescent. These frustrations happen spontaneously with no organized attempt to defeat the learner, but they happen with such frequency for a few adolescents that they begin to believe the world and all the people in the world are against them. For example, one pushes the other into a learner's desk tearing his English compositions which is due in a few minutes. A learner whispers to a friend and the teacher points to the innocent learner as the offender. In other words, things go wrong that should not go wrong. It is not anyone's fault, but the stress is very real, frequent, and intense (Long & Morse, 1996: 252-253; Brown, et al., 1988: 163).

It is important for educators to understand that a learner in a crisis needs to talk. Through mutual conversation rather than punishment, a greater appreciation of the learner's stresses broader perspectives on this behaviour can be achieved.

When educators understand these multiple cycles of stress, they are more willing to help pupils develop new coping skills rather than blame them for their misfortunes. This is a major change in thinking for most pupils and educators. Our personal history has taught us that when we are frustrated or something goes wrong, someone is to blame. For example, educators find it easier to criticize learners and parents for not trying, being careless and/or irresponsible than to understand what is blocking or interfering with a pupil's ability to learn in the classroom. Simultaneously, learners find it easier to attack the educational system, parents, educators, peers and rules for their failure than to understand what is overwhelming them.

Our intervention should focus on understanding, supporting, and teaching new skills to the injured party.

Common stressful classroom incidents according to Long (in Long & Morse, 1996: 253-254) can be identified:

Developmental stress can develop when a learner:

- experiences group pressure to conform to their norms
- sexual attraction to a classmate
- was not called on or selected for a group game
- is jeered by his peers

Physical stress can develop when a learner:

- is too tired to concentrate on the assignment
- is too sick to concentrate on the assignment
- is too hungry to concentrate on the assignment
- has a handicapping condition that prevents him from competing with his peers.

Psychological stress can develop when a learner:

- fails an examination
- is racially depreciated
- believes others have a higher expectation of his performance than he does
- is deliberately rejected or scapegoated by his peers
- is too conflicted by his home problems to concentrate on his assignment

Reality stress can develop when a learner:

- is blamed for something he didn't do
- doesn't have the appropriate textbook, notebooks, etc.
- doesn't understand the content of the assignment
- doesn't understand the teacher's explanations
- cannot get his locker to open which contains a report which is due the next period
- friend accidentally tears his favourite shirt.

It is very important that educators start to familiarize themselves to what can cause a stress or crisis that leads to disruptive behaviour in a classroom. As mentioned in chapter one the high expulsion rate is an indication that some educators are ill-prepared to manage this new level of disruptions that our learners are capable of. It is of the utmost importance that educators empower themselves with the proper tools to manage the disruptive situation in their class so that those crises can become an opportunity to teach and not be regarded as a disaster.

A crisis, according to Long et al. (1998: 11) presents a unique time to help a learner come to grips with an important life problem, which the youth often has denied. When successfully managed, a crisis can illuminate his or her pattern of self-defeating behaviour and provide strength-based social skills.

As mentioned before, crisis must be seen as an opportunity to teach and this entails to look at the learner differently to build resilience. The teacher can use a crisis to build meaningful relationships, teach responsibility and help the learner to develop and grow as a person. Long also view the LSCI as an advanced, sophisticated and effective strategy of using a learner crisis as an opportunity to promote change and insight.

Most troubled learners do not have the insight to solve problems or to regulate their own behaviour and to accept the consequences of their choices. Their perceptions are short sighted and distorted. They also do not have the insight to realize what an effect their behaviour can have on others. Their feelings, according to Wood & Long (1991: 4) take over and "flood their rational minds". They make matters worse by behaving in impulsive defensive and destructive ways.

To guide troubled youth in this endeavour of insight and to change their behaviour or to regulate their own behaviour is a tremendous responsibility. One of the most difficult challenges educators face are these youth's reactions to stress and its by-product, crisis.

When the learner is in crisis the teacher can use LSCI, because it is about talking to learners in crisis.

Wood & Long (1991: 5) regard Life Space Crisis Intervention as a therapeutic, verbal strategy for intervention with learners in crisis. It is conducted at the time the crisis occurs. The process uses learner's reactions to stressful incidents to:

- Change behaviour to self-regulated and value-based behaviour
- Enhance self-esteem
- Reduce anxiety
- Expand understanding and insight into their own behaviour and feeling and of those involved.

LSCI can be used with children and youth of any age in situations where a reaction to stress is a concern, and with learners who are unable to control or manage their own behaviour appropriately. LSCI focuses on crises that occur when an incident escalates into conflict between a learner and others. Because such crisis involves a learner's immediate life experience (the "life space"), it is an optimal time for learning. The teacher's task is to understand the conflict from the learner's point of view, while also

promoting the learner's active choice and personal responsibility for behaviour. To achieve this educators must help them to understand the feelings that drive their behaviour, because many learners in crisis defend themselves against their feelings by denying or displacing them on others, blaming others, regressing or rationalizing.

Long & Wood (1991: 5) is also of the opinion that LSCI should be used as a strategy of choice only after strategies such as positive talk, proximity control, bonus points, appeal to rule and values, and stated behavioural consequences have been tried. LSCI is therefore compatible with behaviour modification and social learning theory. It is part of a continuum of behaviour management strategies.

Long et al. (1998: 12) also explains that LSCI does not supplant any other behavioural, educational or therapeutic strategies that have been shown to be effective. Rather, it begins where other behaviour management systems end. It provides advanced interventions designed for specific learners who show common patterns of self-defeating behaviour. Long also points out that unlike other classical psycho-therapy, the intervention is not value neutral. Instead, if the learner is not motivated to acknowledge his role in the crisis, and change his inappropriate behaviour, further interventions are initiated around clear ethical values about how people live and treat each other in a group setting. LSCI is, therefore, according to Long (1998: 12) "reality based, clinically powerful and multi-theoretical. It integrates research – validated psycho-educational management techniques into the intervention process." LSCI is not a predetermined strategy. This method demands educators to be at their very best when the situation becomes increasingly worse.

2.4 THE BENEFITS OF LSCI FOR A LEARNER

In the past the first thing educators or heads of institutions would have done when learners were in crises was to isolate them. This type of management could be ascribed

to educators' inability to manage disruptive or troubled youth, or difficult situations. It was regarded as a better option to send children to "cool off" and talk to them when they are rational.

Long et al. (1998: 12) differs from the above management model and reason that there are many educational advantages of being with a learner at the peak of his/her anger, depression or regression, particularly if the crisis represents an unresolved psychological issue. When a teacher is with a learner during his/her moment of stress the opportunity is there to observe and document the learner's irrational beliefs, aggressive impulses, reality testing level of anxiety, defense mechanism, feelings of guilt and shame, and coping skills. During the crisis the learner's characteristic way of thinking, perceiving, feeling and behaving, and his pattern of self-defeating behaviour is highlighted.

The advantages of an adult to be with a learner during a crisis are, according to Long et al. (1998: 13) the following:

- Learners are valued and treated with respect by significant adults who see them at their worst
- Learners learn to trust caring adults and use them for support in time of crisis without fear of rejection and punishment.
- Learners become aware of their patterns of self-defeating behaviour
- Learners connect their thinking, feeling, behaving with reactions of others
- Learners acquire specific strength-based social skills
- Learners accept responsibility for inappropriate actions.

Long & Morse (1996: 437) also point out that LSCI can have the following advantages for educators:

- Feel empowered as professionals

- Learn successful ways of deescalating a crisis
- Learn different strategies of responding to a crisis therapeutically
- Learn to develop more supportive staff relationships
- Help to provide a safe school environment.

The School Governing Body will benefit by:

- Providing a more successful resource for "high risk" and "troubled" learners
- Reducing the level of violence in schools
- Reducing the number of lawsuits filed against schools
- Improving public relations with the community.

2.5 THE HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF LSCI

In the early fifties, Fritz Redl and David Wineman introduced the concept of the "marginal interview" later to be renamed "Life Space Interview" which was too a restrictive term, and now "Life Space Crisis Intervention." Redl (in Wood & Long, 1991: 304) defined a learner's Life Space as "direct life experience in connection with the issues that become the interview focus."

The term "marginal interview" had been used to distinguish the process from a formal psychiatric interview or clinical therapy, which were, at that time, the only forms of intervention for troubled children and youth other than play therapy.

The work of Redl and Wineman centred on the study of behavioural controls, aggressive, delinquent children and youth. They believed that behavioural control not only was the essential issue for the learners they worked with, but also was "the daily job of the most normal child in the pursuit of every day life" (Redl & Wineman, 1952 in Wood & Long, 1991: 304). It was their contention that the problems of delinquent and

aggressive learners were just more intensified than some of the troubles every child has to go through in learning self-control. They were convinced that the difference between the normal and the disruptive learner lies in the ability to control oneself. It was their belief that strategies for effective teaching of behaviour controls were an equally important pursuit for the parent and teacher of any child. LSI was one result of their extensive experimentation and study about ways to teach behaviour controls while providing adequate support for personality development.

Redl, a student of August Aichorn, a Viennese educator and psycho-analyst who directed a school for delinquent boys, did research on aggressive youth to understand why "children's controls break down, how some of them defend themselves so successfully against adults in their lives, and what can be done to prevent and treat such a childhood disorganization" (Redl & Wineman, 1957: 13 in Wood & Long, 1991: 305). They were the first to document and advocate using an adolescent's crisis as a core therapeutic component of treatment.

LSI had become a major crisis intervention strategy, furthermore, it was a new way to take clinical concepts of psychotherapy and apply them in action settings (Dittman & Kitchener, 1995 in Wood & Long, 1991: 306).

The work of Redl and Wineman was radical and innovative for the times. They were convinced that the development of LSI could help troubled youth and children. It could also be used successfully with normal children who, do not need therapy or special programmes, but who are temporarily overwhelmed by intense, conflicting feelings like rage, fear, shame, anger, guilt; or who are overwhelmed by unusual life events such as death, divorce, illness, accidents, failure or abuse. During these time normal children behave more like emotionally disturbed children and need intervention of a supportive and skilled adult trained in LSI.

From the sixties to the eighties strategies that were based on behaviour modification dominated intervention programmes. LSI was not so prominent during these years. During the nineties the focus and attention were drawn back on the concerns of 50 years ago, namely the delinquent youth and LSI experienced a revival in special education. Long and Fagen (Long, et al., 1998: 13) realized the importance of LSI to support educators in mainstream schools to deal with disruptive youth. They designed a whole training programme for educators in LSCI.

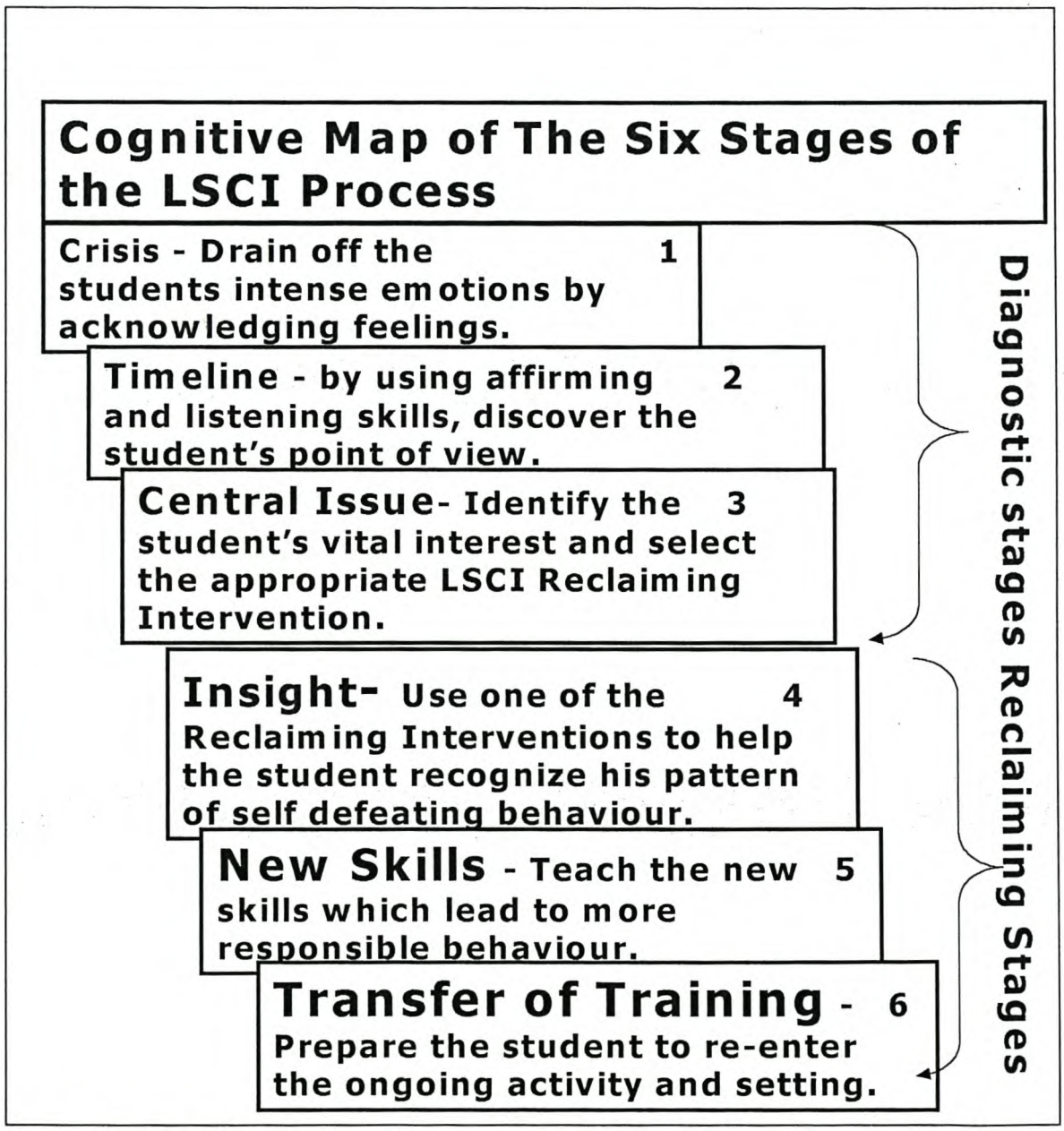
The same problems regarding the increase of violence and aggression in learner's behaviour South Africa are grappling with currently, America experienced during the eighties. LSCI, according to Long, and Morse (1996: 439) has been enhanced and intensified to meet the new social concerns about the increase in learner aggression, hostility, and violence in schools.

The name life space interviewing, the theory proposed by Redl, Wineman and Morse in the 1950's and 1960's was modified to life space crisis intervention. The word interview seemed too restrictive and gave the idea that learners were interrogated. Because of the challenges that educators faced, they realized that because of the pervasive emotional needs of many troubled learners more support and help can be provided by the psychodynamic model of understanding and by talking with an accepting adult. Morse and Long (1996: 439) also explains that an alternative to these concerns, the words "crisis intervention were substituted to indicate that LSCI also involves the integration of many theoretical concepts and skills, including psycho-dynamic theory, cognitive theory, social learning theory and behavioural theory." They started to use the word intervention because they found it a much more broader and more realistic term than interview in describing how LSCI is currently being taught and used in schools during a crisis.

Because LSCI is a highly complex and demanding skill, Long and his colleagues had to clarify the process in order for educators to apply it successfully. A cognitive map was

developed to help educators through the specific learner/teacher stages. The new LSCI guidelines propose six sequential stages of the process with identifiable learner/teacher issues. The LSCI process is illustrated in figure 2.4 (Long, et al., 1998: 16).

Figure 2.4: Cognitive Map



Long et al. (1998: 16)

In figure 2.4, according to Long et al. (1998: 15), we notice that the first three stages of LSCI process requires the teacher to have de-escalation and diagnostic skills. After de-escalating the learner's crisis (stage 1) and obtaining his or her story (stage 2), the teacher identifies the central issue (stage 3). Whatever the situation requires of an adult stage 4 is about helping the learner gain insight into the nature of the problem and teaching the learner new skills (stage 5). In stage 6 the teacher must support the learner to apply the skills in any new environment and circumstances. The teacher is then busy with transfer training.

2.6 PATTERNS OF SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIOUR

According to Long et al. (1998: 17-18) there are six types of patterns of self-defeating behaviour that are common among children and youth. They explained the six patterns of self-defeating behaviour in the following way:

2.6.1 Displacement of conflict

Two types of problems can be identified:

- The Carry In Dynamics

Learners come with their problems from home or the community and displace their anger on the educators.

- The Tap In Dynamics

This behaviour pattern refers to a learner whose unresolved psychological problems are triggered or ignited by a discussion or activity in class such as abuse, divorce, death, rejection, etc.

In both cases the learner will overreact to a normal situation or where an educator made a request. A Carry In Dynamics pattern normally takes place within the first forty minutes of the school day. A reasonable request such as close a door can lead to an outburst and insult to the educator, the school or the subject.

The educator becomes the punch bag and very often falls in the conflict cycle that leads to a no-win situation. The educator is surprised by the learner's outburst, because he is receiving anger that he doesn't deserve. This may provoke feelings of rage that can be catastrophic. This makes it a very volatile situation, because the learner is using the situation as a defense mechanism for personal problems that has not been resolved. By creating a new problem, it takes the attention away from the unresolved problem at home.

2.6.2 Irrational thinking

Very often when youth experiences stress they perceive an event or situation in a distorted way or their thinking is clouded with errors. The learner's anxiety increases or his perception of reality is distorted when something at school is frustrating or upsetting him. Events are seen, or heard or remembered how they perceived it in their emotional state and not how it actually occurred.

Long et al. (1998: 17) regards these learners as suffering of "protective attention, social blindness or tunnel vision." The learner only memorizes specific parts of the events or misinterprets a comment.

The best time to diagnose this central issue is during the Time Line of the LSCI, because the sequence of the events must be established before one can determine how the learner thinks.

2.6.3 Anti-social behaviour with no guilt

Sometimes schools have to deal with aggressive and exploitive learners. Very often these learners act aggressively and exploitive on purpose towards others while justifying their behaviour. They are also inclined to see themselves as the victim and fail to see how they hurt the other person.

They refuse to take responsibility for their actions and because they regard themselves as the victim they will justify their actions by saying "He dissed me and deserved what he got" or "I handled it, because the educator would not have done anything."

These learners are fully aware of what happened during an event and is, therefore, always in control. Their weakness is that they will down play their role during a crisis. The major problem educators experience is that they show no remorse or guilt and have no motivation to change. Gibbs and his colleagues (in Long, et al., 1998: 17) agree with the above view and came to the conclusion that these "anti-social youth often show narcissistic thinking, blame others while minimizing their own problems, and assume the worst about the intentions of others." They could have some conscious, but it is underdeveloped and over-shadowed by the egotistic thoughts.

To identify this self-defeating pattern is normally not a problem, but to change it takes effort and patience, because these learners are masters in creating counter-aggression in adults. Interventions are based on benign confrontation without showing disrespect and hostility. The educator must still try to establish a caring relationship with the learner. The aim should be to make these learners uncomfortable with their aggressive and exploitive behaviour so that they can experience guilt and shame that will encourage them to change.

2.6.4 Impulsivity with guilt

Impulsive learners are those who act impulsively without thinking. Their inappropriate behaviour leads to guilt feelings, because they are well aware that they violated certain rules. Their impulsive behaviour is caused by their lack of self-control or restraint. Their feelings of shame, remorse and inadequacy are so over whelming that they do things to get punished to cleanse their guilt.

Learners showing signs of this pattern of behaviour very often have a history of being abused, abandoned or rejected.

Long et al. (1998: 17) suggest that in order to determine thus pattern educators should look at non-verbal behaviour such as their posture, face, eyes, arms and legs which will reflect their emotional state. Educators should avoid installing more guilt when dealing with this learner. Instead they should strengthen their positive qualities and values to teach self-control.

2.6.5 Limited social skills

How one relates to another person depends on the social skills one acquired over the years. Many learners relate to staff and pears in an unacceptable way without being aware of it. They are in need to be successful or to be part of a circle of friends, but their approach to develop interpersonal closeness or to excel in learning is pushing people away from them. Their problem is that they lack the necessary social skills, although they have the right frame of mind or attitude. To be noticed they will tease friends in a negative way or even to impress educators they will cheat during tests or projects.

This behavior pattern is diagnosed when the educator realized that the learner has good intentions, but acts in a wrong way. To address this problem, skills-instructions are needed to improve interpersonal behaviour.

2.6.6 Vulnerability to peer manipulation and influence

Two variations of this pattern of behaviour can be identified:

- False friendship

Because the learner is in need to belong and feels isolated, he is vulnerable to the influence of an explosive friend who reaches out to him. This is not true friendship, because the friendship lasts for as long as the vulnerable or neglected friend is willing to act out the wishes of the exploitive friend. The manipulative friend uses the vulnerable friend to meet his needs. The need to belong is very often so strong that they belong to gangs. Anything will be done, even murder, to gain acceptance.

When educators pick up this self-defeating pattern, it is best to get both learners together in a discussion to talk about the inappropriate behavior.

- The set-up

The intelligent passive – aggressive learner sets up the aggressive learner to get him out of control. The aggressive learner is not aware of what the strategy of the passive – aggressive learner is. Educators who do not know the dynamics of the situation or how the aggressive learner has been provoked will blame her for the disruption of the class. The aggressive learner gets punished and the passive-aggressive learner experience renewed confidence in what he has achieved.

2.7 SUMMARY

LSCI is a verbal strategy that can be effectively used in the classroom without relying on special resources and equipment. It only needs a skilled adult that can communicate in a humane way with the learner during a crisis. It is also a strategy that attempts to bring long-term changes by guiding the learner into insight of the impact of his self-defeating behavior on himself and others. It uses the learner's crisis to develop insight and accountability.

LSCI can be used very effectively with other behavior modification programmes who has the same reclaiming values. It is also multi-theoretical and does not supercede other intervention programmes, but can start where other programmes fail to produce the desired outcomes.

What makes LSCI successful is that it is a highly individualized programme and focus on specific problems that deter learners to become self-regulated. The success of the LSCI can also be attributed to the fact that Long and his colleagues structured the LSCI process according to a cognitive map to provide educators with specific skills and knowledge to implement the LSCI strategy successfully. They structured the LSCI process according to six stages, namely the Student Crisis stage, Student Timeline stage, Student Central Issue stage, Student Insight stage, Student New Skills stage and Student Transfer of Training stage. The first three stages involve de-escalation and diagnostic skills and the last three stages require reclaiming skills.

By structuring it according to a cognitive map, it helps the educators to stay focused when dealing with a disruptive learner and avoid being swamped by the various issues presented by the learner. Educators can also structure the way they are going to give support, because they know what should follow after each step. This knowledge of the process and the skills they acquire increase their confidence and they feel more comfortable to deal with a learner in crisis.

LSCI is a strategy that each school should implement, because it can drastically decrease violence, but simultaneously can support at-risk and disruptive learners by talking to them about personal problems and situations that could lead to destructive behavior. Although this kind of intervention could be time consuming in the beginning, ultimately it can minimize time schools spend on going over the same disciplinary problems that they struggle to resolve.

CHAPTER 3

PERSPECTIVES FROM THE LITERATURE IN DEALING WITH DIFFICULT BEHAVIOUR

Behaviour issues are extremely complex to deal with. Over the years many educationists and psychologists attempted to look for answers to deal with problems or disruptive behaviour through different approaches or by applying different strategies. In order to develop suitable guidelines and strategies to empower educators to handle disruptive behaviour, and specifically the central issues Peer Manipulation, Impulsive Behaviour and Delinquent or Anti-social Behaviour in the classroom, the researcher will look at existing strategies that were used to handle disruptive behaviour.

A brief overview of strategies will be given.

3.1 COERCION

Many educators struggle to manage disruptive behaviour of frustrated learners. Their inability to deal with disruptive behaviour or to solve problems in the classroom compelled them to resort to coercion. Coercion as an intervention technique is for some educators the simplest and the easiest way to get control over the class. Being in an authoritative position, educators can by virtue of their position easily force children to do the things they want them to do. This kind of straight forward coercion as cited in Kohn (1996: 22) has no regard for "motive, context, past events or future implications." The adult simply forces the child to act or stop acting in a certain way.

The application of coercion and other strategies that are discussed in this chapter might not be applied with the best interest of the learner in mind. Kohn (1996: 22) expressed himself so aptly in this regard when he says that "as educators our responses to things

we find disturbing, our approach to both academic and non-academic matters, might be described as reflecting a philosophy of either doing things to students or working with them." Doing things to a learner can be regarded as a very punitive approach, which aim is to control or punish the learner, but not to guide the learner to gain insight in his or her behaviour. Redl (1966: 356) makes it very clear that techniques like coercion, punishment, rewards, etc. cannot be seen as a "synonym for control". He regards it as one of many techniques that impose control. When one is working with a learner you make him part of the process of growing and development. When using coercion the educator is not making the learner part of his learning process as advocated by Redl.

Dreikurs (in Cangelozi, 1988: 27-28) also emphasizes that "resentment and power struggles are among the unpleasant consequences of autocratic educators' use of coercion to control students' behaviour." Power struggles are unproductive and leads to a situation which is to the detriment of both the learner and the educator.

The problem with coercion is that it does not teach the learner any insight in his actions. Take for example two learners whom are chatting or annoying each other while a educator is teaching. The educator separates the two or just tells them to sit in the corner or leave the class. The concern is whether the children realized how their behaviour affected her lesson or the other children in the classroom. The strategy applied by the educator is definitely not the correct one. The punishment meted out would not be of any benefit to the learners if they were not taught specific skills, which would enable them to respect each other, their fellow learners and the educator who is engaging in the educational process. The only lesson they would learn from coercion is that the educator used her power to discipline them. The inference they could make is that by using coercion one can force people to comply.

Glasser (1992: 58) feels strongly that this approach not only leads to failure, but it exacerbates problems in the classroom. Instead of applying techniques of boss-

management, educators must become lead-managers where learners are not to be persuaded, but to be led to insight on how the new behaviour can be of benefit to them. He is also of the opinion that lead-managers do not coerce. They talk to their learners and try to find mutual ways to solve conflict.

Coercion is, therefore, not a strategy that could be applied with the interest of the learner at heart. The result is that the learner does not gain insight in his behaviour when coerced to comply with the educator's wishes.

3.2 PUNISHMENT

Punishment, according to Burke (1999: 79), "is the applications of a punisher following the display of an inappropriate or disruptive behaviour." The main aim for using a punisher is to reduce or decrease the undesired behaviour. Therefore, Cangelosi (1988: 37) defines punishment as "a stimulus presented after a response that decreases the probability of that response being repeated in the future."

In South Africa many professionals is of the opinion that punishment is unethical and in stark contrast with our human rights policy. Punishment as a method to discipline learners was practiced freely by educators who were unaware of the psychological damage they have done. In order to make sure that individual educators and schools do not abuse their power, the National Education Department developed policy to prevent schools to use punitive measures of control.

Sullivan (2000: 62) equates the punishment approach to the criminal justice system. In our society if a person acts against the law he is punished by imprisonment, a fine or doing community service. In a school context punishment, which can be equated to the criminal justice system, is detention, doing extra homework, writing out code-of-conducts or doing tasks around the school building. Sullivan feels strongly that the

intention with this approach is to let the perpetrator know that he will not get away with his negative behaviour and will be punished.

When punishment as an intervention strategy is chosen, a learner is forced to do something he rather would not do or he/she is prevented from doing something that he is fond of. The intention with punishment as an intervention strategy is to change the learner's future behaviour. If there is no improvement in the behaviour, schools resort to suspension and expulsion.

Using force on children teaches them that aggression is acceptable, but it can have severe psychological effects on learners. Effective punishment only leads to temporary compliance, because it could be of the fear factor involve. Kohn (1996: 24) so aptly explains that "punishment make somebody suffer in order to teach them a lesson."

Redl (1966: 357-363) who worked with troubled youth at Pioneer House shared the above views on the counter productiveness of punishment. He described in detail how the thoughts of the youngsters become irrational and distorted when they are punished. According to him these youth had specific "thinking errors" that clouds their insight when they experience punishment. Redl (1966: 363) made it clear that "what counts most in punishment is not what we do to the kid but what the kid does with the experience to which we have exposed him."

What concerns Redl (1966: 357-358) is not the temporary compliance or "immediate surface effects", but what is simultaneously going on "below the behavioural surface". Some children can handle any kind of punishment, because of resilience, but others build up such a huge amount of frustration that it exacerbates their hostility toward everybody and the world around him/her. Redl also wonders how "intact is the ego equipment" of a child "to cope with the punishment experience" that has been given. What lessons can be

taught, according to Redl, or what positive effect can it have on the learner's motives and values, and on the person underneath the behaviour (Kohn, 1996: 25-26) if that child cannot see what there is in store for him in the future or how he can benefit from the punishment.

We can, therefore, ask why punishment, a complex process according to Redl, fail with learners who exhibits problem behaviour. Brendtro & Long (1997: 134) made the following summary of Redl's findings to explain why it is important to rather steer away from punishment when it comes to disruptive learners. Redl concluded that:

- The youth experiences displeasure from acts such as physical punishment, loss of privileges, or time-out. Troubled youth may seem impervious to the pain of punishment or even enjoy battles with adults, isolation, or masochistic suffering.
- This displeasure causes frustration and the normal emotional response of anger. Punishment causes some youth, such as those who have been cruelly treated by adults, to believe they are attacked. They respond with violent fury or try to escape by withdrawing or running away.
- The youth need to distinguish between the source of displeasure (the punisher) and the cause (one's own behaviour). Many delinquent youth have learned to deny responsibility for their own problems and instead blame on the punishing adult for their difficulty.
- The youth responds by getting mad at him/herself rather than the punisher. But "children who hate nurture vengeance against the punisher. Just as problematic, others use punishment as proof they are bad and worthless, and turning anger inward, they become self-destructive.
- The youth feels remorse for the offense and vows to reform: "I won't do something dumb like this again." But a person who doesn't recognize or own a problem won't experience remorse. Some youth may become sneakier delinquents and vow "I won't be so dumb as to get caught next time."

- When next facing temptation, the youth recall the previous incident and mobilizes self-control before the act. A youth whose conscious is weak doesn't learn from the punishment experience. Children with numb consciousness sometimes feel guilty only after the fact, and then acts out further to provoke punishment. Punishment can suppress behaviour, but not a child's thoughts.

If we argue that punishment must teach the child a lesson (Kohn, 1996: 24; Redl, 1966: 358) we must also remind ourselves, according to Redl that no insight or learning can occur if the child is emotionally not ready to learn.

Redl (1966: 362) also argues that educators resort to punishment when they experience a feeling of helplessness or are unable to communicate to that child. Punishment is, therefore, one of the easiest intervention strategies if you do not know how to handle a child or how to approach a problem.

Unlike Burke or Cangelozi, who defined punishment as a stimulus after an undesired behaviour to increase appropriate behaviour, Redl (1966: 363) regards punishment "as a planful attempt by the adult to influence either the behaviour or the long-range development of a child or a group of children for its own benefit, by exposing it to an unpleasant experience."

If punishment is seen as a "planful attempt" to the benefit of the child, then there is no place for vengeance, losing one's temper, meanness, hostility or lack of concern for a learner's feelings. Redl emphasizes that if one uses an unpleasant experience as an intervention technique, the question must always be if it would help the child to improve his reasoning or help him to control his impulsive behaviour. This, for Redl (1966: 363), "is the only assumption on the basis of which any educational or clinical use of

punishment makes any sense at all." Again it must be emphasized that punishment can only be effective if the learner is on the level where learning can take place.

What is important is not what we do to the child as previously mentioned, but how the child interprets the unpleasant experience he has been exposed to (Kohn, 1996: 24; Redl, 1966: 363).

No intervention strategy can be effective if we do not provide the learner with support. According to Redl (1966: 372) "a well-designed punishment will backfire badly if for some reason we are unable to give the kid the support he needs to go through it without distortions and to learn from it what we want him to learn."

Punishment can, therefore, be justified if it is to be used within the framework of Redl's definition who stresses that the exposure of a child to an unpleasant experience should be a planful attempt to let the child gain insight in his destructive behaviour or to produce positive behaviour.

3.3 REWARDS

Educators, who are also in agreement that punishment as a technique to handle disruptive behaviour can be very negative, make use of rewards as an intervention technique. They regard it as a more humane way of dealing with disruptive behaviour.

The use of rewards or reinforcers is a result of Skinner's work that examined the effects of stimuli on learning when the stimuli occurred after a response or act. The stimuli, seen as a reinforcer, increase the probability of a response or appropriate behaviour. Positive reinforcements were implemented by giving a child a reward or incentive so that the desired behaviour is strengthened. This will increase positive behaviour in the future

(Brown, et al., 1981: 196; Cangelozi, 1988: 33; Faupel, Herrick & Sharp, 1998: 6; Walker & Shea, 1988: 95).

This research influenced the way many educationists tried to manage behaviour problems, because as cited in Cangelozi (1988: 33) it was concluded that "behaviours (i.e. responses) that are followed by rewards (i.e., satisfying or pleasant stimuli) are more likely to be repeated than behaviours that are not. Aversive stimuli or punishment following a behavioural response tends to discourage that response from recurring."

Educationists who are strong believers of behaviour modification programs believe that it is necessary to manipulate the environment of the learner to increase the chances of rewarding desired behaviour while undesired behaviour are not rewarded.

This ties in with the argument of Walker & Shea (1988: 95) who believe that there are advantages in using positive reinforcements or rewards. It is helpful in a sense that it is responsive to the child's natural need for attention and approval; and it decreases the probability that the child will exhibit inappropriate behaviour in an effort to obtain attention.

The reward system is to a certain extent strongly rejected by other educationists who do not see the real benefits of it. An educationist like Kohn (1996: 32-33) on the other hand is against the use of rewards, because it only leads to temporary compliance and it is just a form of "control through seduction". Kohn is supported by Cangelozi (1988: 34) who is also not in favour of the reward system. He raises important issues regarding a reward system that might constrain the success of the intervention process. Cangelozi (1988: 34) warns us to be cautious when using rewards, because he feels strongly that character development in the process can be neglected while learners "go through the motions" of being well-behaved. He is also of the opinion that learners are provided with extrinsic rewards that have no natural association with the behaviours they are designed to

encourage. An example is where educators give stamps for doing homework. The homework is only being done, because there is a reward.

It is clear that there is a debate regarding whether rewards have a positive or negative influence on the learners' behaviour. There is no consensus whether the reward system, which is applied by the educators to improve the behaviour of learners, can be regarded as a successful strategy. It is needless to say that educationists are not in agreement of the value of the reward system.

There are different opinions regarding the value of reward systems. What is, however clear, is that there is not sufficient proof that the reward system illuminates the dysfunctional behaviour of the learner for himself.

3.4 CONSEQUENCES

Very often, according to Kohn (1996: 40), consequences are used only as an "euphemism for external control." Learners are still forced to comply in a more subtle way. If consequences are used to control, the learner is not engaged in the learning process and will not learn from his/her mistakes. When using strategies such as rewards, punishment and consequences in a punitive way, it can be regarded as a deficit approach.

A deficit approach, according to Sullivan (2000: 62), does not work with learners who had traumatic experiences in life that hardened them to threats and punishment. Henley (1997: 4) is of the opinion that "meager doses of discomfort doled out by school discipline codes barely make out a dent in these student's armor-plated personalities." If one confronts these learners they will challenge you and fight back. A deficit approach makes them resentful and leads to their self-fulfilling prophecy that adults are not there to support but to punish.

In South Africa many educational institutions are still trapped into the above-mentioned approaches. Our suspension policy will send them back to the streets where they continue to put negative strategies in place to survive. It will be a challenge to overcome the pre-occupation of compliance.

Many other educationists regard the use of consequences as a more positive method than the previous mentioned strategies, because it can be used to make learners aware of their destructive behaviour. According to Burke (1992: 63) who sees consequences as "events that follow the behaviour or come after the behaviour of concern" is also of the opinion that this approach, based on Applied Behaviour Analysis research, can influence behaviour to a great extend if one uses consequences that are functional reinforcers. Determining effective consequences, from an intervention perspective, is the most important aspect of a program. One can infer from the above view that instead of using consequences in a punitive way, it should educate the learner by teaching him/her how destructive his behaviour is and the effect it has on him and others. By implementing the consequence method in this way it makes learners aware that for every action there is a consequence.

Rogers (1996: 25) agrees with the above view and also regards consequences as a necessary feature of discipline and management. He also argues that it is important that there should be "connections between the behaviour and the desired outcomes (positive or negative) and these outcomes relate to how others are affected by one's behaviour." By making learners aware of outcomes, they start to think about their actions and do not perceive a logical consequence as a punishment.

The idea of using logical consequences as an instruction tool is emphasized by Kohn (1996: 39) who stresses that various writers are of the opinion that logical consequences differ from punishment for the following reasons: The application of consequences are:

- Motivated by desire to instruct.
- Related to the act of the wrongdoer.
- Reasonable and respectful in their application, but should be as important as the kind of consequences applied.

When applying consequences in the above way, Rogers (1996: 91) believe that learners have some role in negotiating the consequences. Learners learn to take responsibility for their actions and they start to show insight. it is clear that if educators use consequences in a logical way, it can be effective as a strategy to change self-defeating behaviour.

3.5 NEEDS-BASED APPROACHES

It is believe that one way of understanding the underlying causes of the problems that disruptive learners are struggling with are to look at the needs of learners. If one can identify the needs of the frustrated learner that is not fulfilled, one is in a better position to design intervention strategies that can help the learner.

Various psychologists and educationists looked at how the fulfillment of needs can help them in dealing effectively with troubled learners.

3.5.1 GLASSER'S CHOICE THEORY

- **Underlying philosophy**

The choice theory place the emphasis on choices and that we choose all our conscious behaviour or everything we do. Glasser (1992: 76-77; 1993: 124) contends that behaviour is not a simple action or activity, but has a combination of four components, namely acting (actions), thinking (thoughts), feelings and biological responses (physiology). Your feelings and biological response are always part of every behaviour,

but it is also linked with our actions and thoughts that make up the whole or total behaviour. If learners want to feel better, they will have to act and think more effectively.

This view is in direct contrast of those who believe that one can manipulate a learner by external stimuli or that our behaviour is manipulated by external events. The author believes that all of our behaviour comes from within ourselves and we choose what we do. Learners must, therefore, be taught that their behaviour is not caused by what happened to them (stimulus-response theory) but it is caused by what they were thinking and what ever they do, they are choosing to do.

- **View on learners**

Glasser (1992: 79) is also of the opinion that learners are capable to take responsibility for their actions, because the only person we can control is ourselves, and not other people as we constantly are trying to do.

- **View on learning**

The choice theory contends that the most important thing to everybody is the quality of our lives. To minimize traumas of a troubled learner or to improve his life, educators must have knowledge of a learner's quality world. This knowledge will help the educator to manage disruptive behaviour more effectively. Learning will improve if learners understand what educators teach them and how they do it will add quality to their lives (Glasser, 1992: 58-60).

Quality is achieved when our basic needs are met. According to Glasser (1992: 43-44; 1993: 137) everybody are born with the following five basic needs that are "built into the genetic structure":

- **Survival:** Learning can only take place if a learner's physical or survival needs for food, shelter and security are met. According to the author educators are well aware that if a child is hungry, he thinks of food, if he is lonely, he looks for friends and if he feels powerless, he looks for attention and not knowledge.
- **Love and friendship:** Meaningful relationships encourage learners to give more than is expected, but it is also measured by how much we are willing to give.
- **Power:** refers to the need to choose for ourselves and not to manipulate others. At all times we must strive to gain effective control over our lives so that we can meet our needs and make a powerful impact on society at large.
- **Freedom:** refers to the need for independence or not be controlled by others.
- **Fun:** is the joy we experience when our needs are satisfied. Learning must, therefore, be fun.

If learners are aware of their needs and what needs are not met, they are in a position to make rational rather than emotional decisions on how to meet their needs, without imposing on the needs of others.

The author believes that a learner will be disruptive in a class if the content of the work does not meet his needs. The content and how educators relate to the learner, can have an affect on the learner's need for power. The learner views himself as a failure, which can lead to loneliness, apathy, absence from school, etc. To remedy this situation, according to the author, educators resort to coercion, which is destructive and does not work.

Glasser (in Long & Morse, 1996: 310) is of the opinion that educators who have troubled learners in their classroom must be aware of the five basic needs so that they can develop suitable learning programmes and create opportunities to meet their needs.

- **Role of the educator**

Educators must become part of the quality world of the learner as a need-satisfying picture. It is the duty of the educator to show learners that if they do high-quality work it can add quality to their life. By doing this, the work done in the classroom will meet their needs. Educators must build caring relationships with their learners which will in turn make them realize that they should take charge of their own actions. By building trust they gain strength to become responsible citizens (Glasser, 1993: 122).

The author requests that educators think differently about authority. Instead of being boss-managers, which involve imposing academic work and standards of behaviour on learners without their input, educators should become lead-managers by combining what learners need and what you ask of them. This will make learners self-driven and self-regulated. It does not mean that learners will have power over the educator, but they respect you for listening to them (Glasser, 1992: 25-37).

The choice theory requires a fundamental revision on the content that educators are teaching and the teaching process as a whole. Learners must regard a school as a safe place where their needs are met. Learners want to feel they are in control and have power. Educators can support this power by encouraging responsibility through the teaching of high-quality work and becoming lead-managers instead of boss-managers. This will foster the solving of problems in a collaborative way, which makes the learner part of the learning process.

3.5.2 CIRCLE OF COURAGE

Educators should focus on establishing a caring environment for all the learners where they are respected and feel secure and valued. Such an environment provides interesting

and challenging lessons where children can thrive and experience success. Learners accept the rules and routines and are well aware of the consequences when violating the rules. They do not however feel rejected when breaking the rules, but still experience acceptance. Learners are given the opportunity to learn from their mistakes in a positive atmosphere.

The Circle of Courage, developed by Brendtro, Brokenleg and van Bockeren (1990: 6-7) advocated such an environment where there is trust, respect and a sense of belonging, where learners felt successful as well as responsible for themselves and for others. They draw upon the traditional practices and philosophies of the Red Indians of America to explain how educators can establish such a reclaiming environment where learners can feel psychologically safe. The native-Americans used the values as described in the Circle of Courage as the basis to teach young children and adolescents. Brendtro et al. (1990: 36) believe that "The philosophies embodied in the Circle of Courage is not only a cultural belonging of Native peoples, but a cultural birthright for all children." Everybody in the child's larger circle of significance, not only the biological parents, have a responsibility to nurture, rear and develop him/her into a maturing and caring adult. Very often, according to these authors, no nurturing takes place, because these youth feel alienated from their family, friends and school.

According to Brendtro et al. (1990: 6-7) troubled youth and children often:

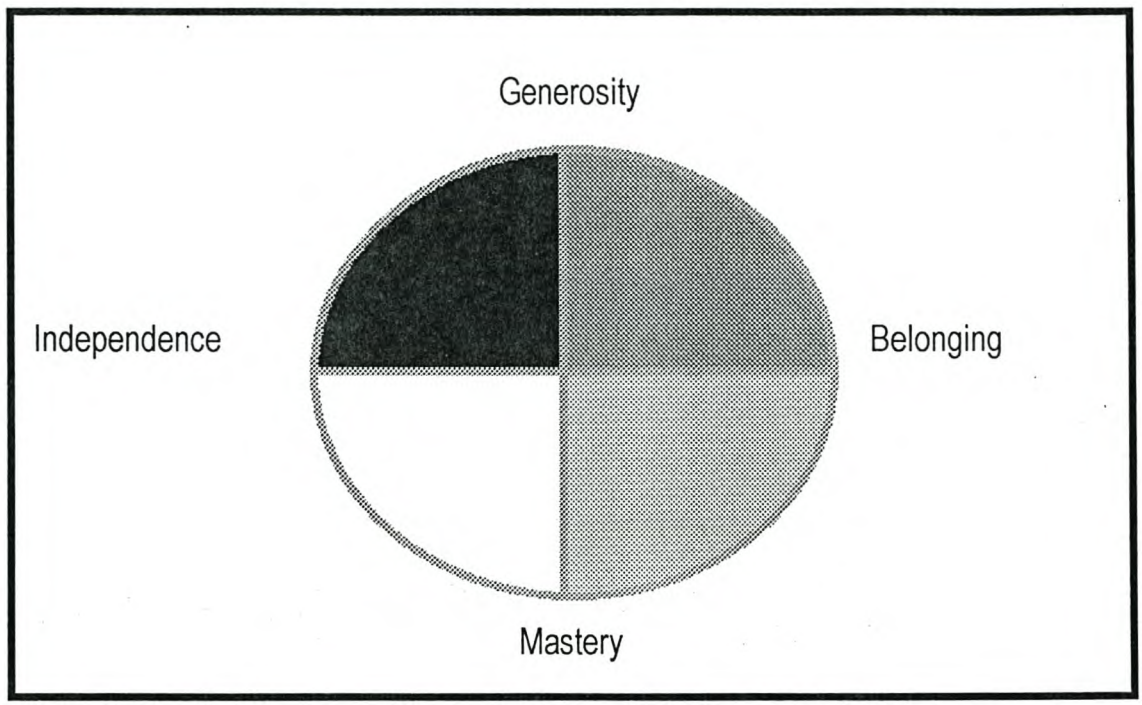
- **Engage in destructive relationships.** They want to be loved, but is unable to trust adults. Their emotional scars of the past are so deeply embedded that they expect to be hurt again and again. Because they have experienced such extreme physical and emotional abuse, they lack a sense of belonging.
- **Experience feelings of futility.** They feel unsuccessful, incompetent and inadequate. They want to feel successful and valued and fear failure just like other normal children.

- **Learn irresponsibility.** Adults very often turn their backs on these learners and do not make them feel valued and part of the group. No real responsibilities are bestowed on them and this makes them defiant and they rebel against authority, demonstrate learned helplessness, join negative peer groups such as gangs and they engage in narcissistic activities and behaviours of affluent societies.
- **Show a lack of purpose.** They are searching for meaning in a world full of conflicting values. They feel unimportant and unable to develop their own values unless they are given opportunities to be of real value to others.

To counteract these feelings of alienation Brendtro and his colleagues suggest that schools should try to incorporate the educational practices and philosophies of the Native American cultures.

These practices and philosophies are underpinned in the Circle of Courage which, according to Brendtro et al. (1990: 35-36) the underlying philosophy is that children have four basic needs, namely a sense of belonging, mastery, independence and generosity. These values form a circle and if the circle is broken, it should be mended by trying to establish which part of the circle is broken. These authors propose "belonging, mastery, independence and generosity as the central values – the unifying theme – of positive cultures for education and youth work programs." Figure 3.1 gives an illustration of the Circle of Courage and the values it advocates.

Figure 3.1 The Circle of Courage



Source : Brokenleg (1999:195)

The implementation of strategies to deal with disruptive youth should have the development of the self-esteem as the primary goal to foster socialization. Brendtro and his colleagues believe that without a sense of self worth, youngsters are vulnerable to many social psychological and learning problems.

In the same way Coopersmith (in Brendtro, et al., 1990: 35) identified four basic components of the self-concept, namely significance, competence, power and virtue.

- **Significance**

  When a child experiences acceptance, affection and receive attention from others, he feels he is part of a community and, therefore, experience a sense of belonging. A

lack of significance can lead to feelings of rejection, or he/she feels ignored or does not belong.

- **Competence**

  This develops as one masters the environment. Learners who experience success are satisfied and have a sense of efficacy. Failure will stifle motivation. It is, therefore, imperative that learners are exposed to opportunities where they can show mastery.

- **Power**

  Children have power when they can control their behaviour and the respect of others. If you do not have power, you feel powerless or helpless and you do not have the capacity to influence others. To lead children to power is to foster independence.

- **Virtue**

  This is exposed by the values inherited by your culture or family you choose to demonstrate. One can be spiritually empty if there is a lack of values. Values are reflected in the spirit of generosity.

Brendtro et al. (in Meese, 1998: 165) illustrates in table 3.1 the Foundations of Self-esteem of Coopersmith and compare the Native American values with western values.

Table 3.1: A comparison of the Foundations of Self-esteem with Native American and Western values.

Foundations of Self-esteem	**Native American Values**	**Western values**
Coopersmith, 1967	Brendtro et al. 1990	
Significance (Acceptance, Attention, Affection from others)	**Belonging** (Connectedness, Relationships, Bonds as a member of a group)	**Individualism** (Standing on one's own is measure of importance)
Competence Mastery of the environment, Success leads to Satisfaction)	**Mastery** (Opportunities and co-operation for Success at Personal Goals, Achievements shared by all)	**Winning** (Competition at the expense of others who must loose)
Power (Feelings of Control over one's Behaviour, Gaining Respect of others)	**Independence** (Self-management, Responsibility, Expectations that people solve their own problems)	**Dominance** (Asserting one's will over others equals power)
Virtue (Feelings of Worthiness as Judged by others, Spiritual Fulfillment and Meaningfulness in life)	**Generosity** Importance is judged by intrinsic rather than extrinsic worth; Giving to others of oneself and one's possessions)	**Affluence** (Worth and status is determined by material possessions and wealth accumulated)

Source: Brendtro et al. (in Meese, 1996:165)

To apply the Circle of Courage as a strategy it is important to understand what these values meant to the Native people and how they used it to manage behaviour.

3.5.2.1 The Spirit of Belonging

Many youth in our modern society is desperately in need of a sense of belonging. This is evident in the influence gangs have on our children. Karl Meninger (in Brendtro, et al., 1990: 38) is of the opinion that they "pursue these "artificial belongings" because this need is not fulfilled by families, schools and neighborhoods. Troubled youth look for relationships with adults who give them recognition and love those who return that love unconditionally.

The traditional Native Society made sure that every child got the opportunity to bond or to belong, and if bonding was lacking, they manufacture relationships to be included in the great ring of relatives. If you make them part of a group, they become motivated to show respect and concern which will minimize conflict and increase goodwill. Brendtro et al. (1990: 37) believe that these are powerful social values where others are treated as related transformed human relations. The ultimate test of kinship was your behaviour and not how you were related - you belonged if you acted that you belonged.

3.5.2.2 The Spirit of Mastery

People generally feel good about themselves when they achieve or feel they have mastered a task. This normally leads to further motivation to enhance achievement. Those who do not feel competent or experience success sometimes express their frustration by showing negative behaviour or they feel inferior.

The goal of native education, according to Brendtro et al. (1990: 39), was to develop cognitive, physical, social and spiritual competence. Children were taught to control and restrain themselves by listening to and observing others.

They relied on powerful intrinsic re-enforcers to motivate children towards competency, because it was important for social recognition and inner satisfaction. If the children have the need to feel competent, we must encourage the mastery of skills. When children engage in challenging tasks and are successful, they learn that they do possess the skills to bring about desirable outcomes. They then experience a sense of self-efficacy that will enhance their self-esteem. It is therefore important that learners perceive learning experiences as purposeful and meaningful.

3.5.2.3 The Spirit if Independence

People feel in control if they can map out their own destiny. If they cannot control their lives, as explained in the Control Theory, others manipulated them and as Brendtro et al. (1990: 41) put it they are "developmental casualties whose disorders are variously labeled as learned helplessness, absence of internal locus of control, and lack of intrinsic motivation." Because the need of independence or power is not met, alternative sources of power and freedom are seeked.

Traditional Native culture regarded individual freedom very highly and started to train these youngster's self-management skills from an early age. If a child learns to make his/her own decisions, he/she is driven by his/her own goals and takes responsibility for his/her own successes and failures. Education was influenced by the principles by guidance without interference. Elders teach the values and provide role models how to attain and live these values. Opportunities to learn and make choices without coercion are constantly created. To teach responsibility children must be approached with maturity and dignity. This view asks of us to respect the right of children to have some

control over their lives and that children do respond with an open mind to positive interventions (Brendtro, et al., 1990: 41-42).

The above view ties in with the choice theory that advocates the same management principles in dealing with behaviour that will allow youth to exert control over their lives. This theory argues that discipline will fail if the need for freedom, to control our lives, or to be able to influence others positively is taken away. Children must know how their behaviour affects others, but simultaneously we must encourage responsibility by showing empathy.

3.5.2.4 The Spirit of Generosity

The highest virtue regarded by native cultures was to be generous and unselfish. This is achieved by teaching altruism.

Brendtro & Ness (in Brendtro, et al., 1990: 45) "demonstrated that troubled young people increase their sense of self-worth as they become committed to the positive values of caring for others." Selye (in Brendtro, et al., 1990: 45) is also of the opinion that if children learn to adopt the virtue of altruism, they become less self-centered and it helps them to cope with the stresses of life.

3.5.2.5 Mending the Broken Circle

Brendtro et al. (1990: 46) believe that when the Circle of Courage is broken or in other words if there is no belonging, mastery, independence or generosity the lives of many children may be in disarray and is there "no courage, but only discourage."

It is expected of the educator to look beyond the surface or behaviours to identify which of the needs, for example belonging, mastery, independence or generosity are not met. It

is the educator's responsibility not just to observe behaviour, but also to decode the behaviour to understand where the circle is broken and how the circle can be fixed. Only when we understand which of the needs are lacking, we can start to develop intervention strategies to support the child.

To deal effectively with aggressive, angry or frustrated learners, according to Brendtro et al. (1990: 46), it is necessary to ask the following questions:

- Is this revenge by a child who feels rejection?
- Is this frustration in response to failure?
- Is this rebellion to counter powerlessness?
- Is this exploitation in pursuit of selfish goals?

If the above questions cannot be answered adequately, we will have a tough time mending the circle.

The following characteristics of children who reflect denial of belonging, mastery, independence and generosity are given by Brendtro et al. (1990: 47-51):

- **Belonging**

When the need for belonging is not fulfilled, youth feel rejected. They compensate for this rejection by looking for acceptance by negative peers, gangs or attention is obtained in a negative way. Some children are so severely traumatized that it is difficult for them to establish positive or any relationship. They did not learn the art of bonding. Strategies must address the unmet needs by teaching a child about trust and intimacy.

- **Mastery**

Mastery refers to success and competence. Children who were never given the opportunity to demonstrate their skills or competence resort to delinquent ways of showing their competence. This is a distorted way of exhibiting success. Those who do not have the confidence avoid difficult challenges by expressing futility. Educators should expose these children and involve them in an environment where they have an abundance of opportunities to demonstrate the competence in a meaningful way. Experiencing successes that are accepted by society, as positive will enhance the self-esteem of the child.

- **Independence**

When adults start to take away the freedom of youth and also deny them the opportunity to show some responsibility they become rebellious and aggressive. These youth are always in a battle with themselves where they fight their inner-feelings of powerlessness. Those who are not strong enough to exert power become manipulated by peers. The leaner that manipulate or bully for example have distorted thinking of what real power is. It is important to develop strategies where these learners can learn to become more assertive, develop the skills and confidence to demonstrate positive leadership and self-discipline.

- **Generosity**

Children must be given the opportunity to learn about altruism and how meaningful ones life is when one can experience you of giving and caring for others. If the need to care and give is not developed or satisfied children could be involved in pseudo altruistic helping or they could be used and abused by others. Some learners will show generosity, but for them it is important to determine what they can get out of the situation. Brendtro

and his colleagues emphasizes that it could lead to "lifestyles of hedonism and narcissism".

Brendtro et al. (1990: 51) make it clear that if children are denied courage or do not have balance in their lives they do not experience that sense of harmony with self and others. This balance or harmony can only be developed or reclaimed in an environment which depicts the care values, belonging, mastery, independence, generosity as represented by the Circle of Courage.

This strategy teaches learners how to make independent decisions or good choices and to respect the wisdom of any adult that has a meaningful contribution to make in his life. The learner is also encouraged to experience and fulfill his need for autonomy by nourishing the need to belong. He makes the right choice to belong to the right groups. When the leaner demonstrates that he mastered certain skills and experienced success he can be of help to others by maybe joining a peer mediation group at school. Addressing all these needs make the circle whole.

3.6 LIFE SPACE CRISIS INTERVENTION: CREATION OF MEANING AND INSIGHT

LSCI is a therapeutic verbal strategy that helps educators to change a learner's behaviour to self-regulated and value-based behaviour. This is all done by talking to a learner in crisis. Self-regulation, according to Long & Wood (1991: 3) "emerges from understanding of people and events in their environment, motivation to change unpleasant conditions, and trust in adults." This can be described as follows:

- **Understanding an event**

  - Acknowledgment of the part personal behavior and feelings contribute;
  - Awareness of reaction of others;
  - Social perception about the sequence of consequences that follow; and
  - Recognition of alternatives that can modify a chain of events.

- **Motivation to change**

  - Desire to improve existing conditions;
  - Belief that change for the better is possible;
  - Sufficient self-esteem to believe that improvement is deserved; and
  - Confidence to try something different.

- **Trust in adults**

  - Confidence in adults' respect for students' feelings;
  - Conviction that adults value students;
  - Belief that adults recognize students' attributes;
  - Belief that adults use authority and power wisely;
  - Confidence that adults can solve problems in satisfactory ways; and
  - Willingness to accept adult guidance.

LSCI help educators to understand the behaviour of learners who do not have the above-mentioned qualities. These learners perceive events in an irrational way and they are short sighted. They do not have the ability to understand how their behaviour can offend or affect others, because they are so overwhelmed by these negative feelings that no rational thinking takes place. What fuels the conflict is their impulsive, defensive and destructive ways. Educators must also become knowledgeable about the world of their

learners, because they come to school with problems that makes them frustrated and it is then that they need positive intervention.

LSCI is an intervention built around the child's direct life experiences (Redl, 1966: 41) and it is administered immediately if a child is in stress or in a crisis. According to Morse (in Long and Morse, 1996: 420) a crisis develops when the learner's capacity to cope becomes "overloaded". This is the time that educators should regard as an opportunity where learning can occur. The educator can immediately assist the learner, because he/she is the person intimately involved in the daily life of the learner and is, therefore, the logical choice to prevent a crisis to develop or to apply the necessary intervention that the learner needs (Redl, 1966: 41). The educator does not have to wait for a specialist or therapist to treat the learner.

Wood and Long (1991: 5-7) see crises as times during which learning may take place. It should not necessarily be regarded as a negative situation. The LSCI technique is imposed to structure an incident in the child's life to enable him/her to solve the problems that are barriers to self-regulation.

LSCI differs from the other needs-based approaches in the sense that the life space interview, according to Redl (1966: 42-43) may be applied for either of two purposes, namely clinical exploitation of life events or emotional first aid on the spot.

Clinical exploitation of life events refers to when the interviewer, and in this case the educator, uses an actual incident to explore with the child negative self-destructive behaviour characteristics that are constantly surfacing. During this time the educator develops a conscious awareness of distorted perceptions of existing realities, pathological behavioural characteristics, hidden social and moral values and standards, or reactions to the behaviours and pressures of the group (Walker and Shea, 1988: 161).

During this time more productive and socially acceptable means of problem solving is discussed.

Emotional first aid is used to calm the learner down to continue an activity when a learner is experiencing unusual stress. Emotional first aid is implemented, according to Walker and Shea (1988: 162) to:

- Reduce the frustration level of the child.
- Support the child in emotionally charged situations.
- Restore strained learner-educator and learner-learner communications.
- Reinforce existing behaviour and social limits and realities or
- Assist the learner in efforts to find solutions to every day problems of living and emotionally charged incidents, such as fights and arguments.

It often happens that learners do not have insight in their self-deprecating behaviour. When the educator is confronted with disruptive behaviour it is his/her role to guide the learner through a process of facilitation and mediation to gain insight. The learning process is about creating meaning that will help the learner to understand how he/she can construct new ways of thinking.

Kohn (1996:66) agrees with the above view and makes it clear that "children, like adults are not passive receptacles into which knowledge is poured." Learners are active meaning makers and not passive beings that respond to a "stimulus" (Kohn, 1999: 66; Gravette, 2001: 18).

Adults who support learners in a crisis by using the LSCI strategy need to understand, according to Long and Wood (1991: 5), the conflict from the learners' point of view. This entails the ability to take personal responsibility for his actions by promoting the active choices learners have to make. To make informed choices the learner must also

know that the new information he is gathering is, according to Prawat, (in Gravett, 2001: 19) "related to what they already know, or that the new information is compatible with their existing knowledge and that their own ideas are flawed or incomplete." LSCI has the same view as the constructivist approach where it is expected of the educator to support the learner to construct meaningful interconnections (Gravett, 2001: 19) so that their existing flawed conceptions or irrational beliefs are transformed or revised in one way or the other.

If the educator must understand the world of the learner or the conflict from the learner's point of view, he/she should be aware of the developmental anxieties that learners are confronted with at various developmental stages in their lives. Wood and Long (1991: 55-57) explain the following developmental anxieties that should be identified to understand the behavioural responses and to give educators directions for individualizing a learner's program and to select the appropriate intervention strategies to address the central issues. They believe anxiety is "a private, persistent reaction to unmet emotional needs."

The developmental anxieties are:

- **Abandonment**

The authors regard abandonment as the fundamental anxiety that stems from fears of physical or psychological deprivation, abuse or annihilation of the self. When the learner has experienced abandonment, the educator should show unconditional love, care and affection. The school should be an environment where pleasure, comfort, care and security is experienced, but also consistency is provided.

- **Inadequacy**

The learner who feels inadequate is unsure of him/herself and will doubt him/herself. They fear the unknown and also failure and will try to avoid it. They fear taking risks,

and will avoid new experiences, because they do not know what to expect. These learners will always try to cover up mistakes by blaming others, denying responsibility, lying or avoiding failure, punishment, criticism etc.

These learners need skills to be successful, to build self-confidence and constant adult approval.

- **Guilt**

Learners experiencing guilt feel worthless, especially if he/she could not live up to expectations or broke the rules. Because of failure, they think they deserve punishment and this leads to self-denigration. They start to engage in outrageous and unacceptable behaviour or violate rules on purpose just to be caught. These learners are troubled by their own failure and express their anger towards others in devious ways in order to avoid blame.

These learners must get the opportunity to have positive experiences with friends and adults. They learn to listen to other points of view and should realize that worthiness can be judged by alternative standards.

- **Conflict**

When learners reach a certain stage in their life, there is a strong need for independence. The independent self is emerging with increasing self-confidence and social adeptness. This, according to the authors, takes the form of willfulness, aggression, defiance, independence and an unwillingness to submit to authority.

If there is conflict between independence and adult authority, they will manipulate, act out, agress and transgress, and constantly try to control. Educators should teach these learners that with freedom comes responsibility.

- Identity

An identity crisis usually occurs when adolescents want to be regarded as an individual. They become aware of the freedoms, but are also aware of the demands put on them to be successful and to be responsible. Conflict arises when they want to be successful and independent, but still have the desire to have somebody in their lives on whom they can depend. When they struggle with this inner-conflict, they start to doubt themselves which leads to less self-confidence in their ability to handle challenges. This unresolved anxiety about self-worth and self-identity has an impact on their values, attitudes and behaviour. Feelings of uselessness emerge which leads to anger and aggressive acting out behaviour that keeps the conflict cycle constantly alive.

If the learners experience success, are given the opportunity to demonstrate their skills in their new situations and try out values and attitudes where other people recognize their success, this developmental anxiety can be resolved.

Wood and Long (1991: 58) suggest that educators should try and find out which developmental anxieties learners are trying to protect, so that they can teach them to recognize connections among their own feelings, inappropriate behaviour and how others will react on this behaviour. These connections can be shown by decoding the learner's behaviour during a crisis.

The LSCI makes the learner part of his developmental process. The educator is merely negotiating meaning through mediation. Gravett (2001: 21) explains this so eloquently by stating that, "as mediator, the educator mediates between learners' current ways of thinking and doing (personal knowledge and skills) and the body of public knowledge (new learning content), with its accompanying way of thinking and doing that the learners need to appropriate." This implies that, as in the timeline stage of the LSCI, which take the learners' perspective into account, because the process of LSCI starts with the learner's views, thinking, etcetera. The educator becomes co-learner and the

learner becomes co-mediator. With LSCI the intent is to convey the educator as mediator among "stress, the student's behaviour, and the private world of feelings that students are sometimes unable to handle without help" (Wood & Long, 1991: XII).

For the researcher the constructivist approach, which underpins the underlying philosophy of the LSCI strategy is the most suitable way to deal with disruptive behaviour. It "humanizes" the situation. Change in behaviour comes not because of fear of punishment or consequences, but because there is insight in humanness and values that are needed to build positive relationships.

3.7 SUMMARY

From the discussion in this chapter, it is clear that punitive strategies that forces compliance and attempt to control the disruptive learner will not guarantee success. Such strategies and techniques will only increase disciplinary problems and it will not only affect the morale of the educators, but estrange the learner further from the school or his family.

Recently educationists and psychologists have looked at approaches such as Choice Theory, Circle of Courage and LSCI that address the needs of the learners. Comparisons can be drawn between these intervention techniques, especially those that focus on choices, teaching responsibility and logical consequences and the importance of values. These approaches look at the learner as a whole and instead of forcing compliance make him part of the learning process. Responsibility and values are taught through the choices they make.

As mentioned in chapter two, the LSCI does not supersede other intervention strategies and can be regarded as multi-theoretical. It can be used with other interventions that has

the same reclaiming values or it can start where other intervention techniques failed to produce positive results.

The difference between the LSCI and the other needs-based approaches is that the LSCI is a highly individualized method. It attempts to address specific personal psychological problems learners experience, that prevents them being resilient or self-directed. The Circle of Courage and the Choice Theory are strategies that can be used effectively to create a caring and therapeutic milieu that can enhance the implementation of the LSCI.

LSCI, although overlapping with other intervention strategies, places great emphasis on making meaning and creating insight into the self-destructive behaviour. The development of this skill enables the learner to make choices that will improve his behaviour. LSCI is not just a strategy to support the learner. It is also a strategy to support the educator and helps the educator to know how and when to disengage from self-defeating behaviour in their attempts to manage difficult youth.

CHAPTER 4

GUIDELINES AND SKILLS EDUCATORS NEED: THE BASICS

In chapter one it was emphasized how the learner's dysfunctional behaviour impacted negatively on educational activities in schools. It was also highlighted that neither the education department nor certain schools have at this stage the ability to remedy such an untenable situation.

In chapter three the researcher also referred to popular existing strategies, which are currently employed by educators in an effort to address disciplinary problems in schools. It is clear that certain strategies are not suitable and might be counter-productive in an attempt to change the dysfunctional behavior of learners. This view is also supported by Sugai (in Algozinne & Kay, 2002: 2) who emphasized that, "many learners whose lives place them at risk for emotional- and behavioural problems do not respond to generic discipline methods." In chapter one it was also emphasized how vital it is for educators to acquire skills to manage disruptive behaviour.

The LSCI strategy was implemented by Long and his colleagues in an attempt to support and empower educators to deal effectively with dysfunctional behaviour, In chapter two I made it clear that the LSCI strategy was designed as an addition to other strategies. Its implementation was successful to a certain extent as mentioned in chapter one. According to research done by Long et al. (1998: 14) educators grappled with the reclaiming stages, which requires the educator to teach the learners insight in their self-defeating behaviour. They lacked the skills to teach the learners the necessary social skills and to provide effective guidance for the learner to re-enter the classroom and to demonstrate the social skills whenever necessary. Although the LSCI was developed in a further attempt to support educators, it must be emphasized that the LSCI will only be

successful if educators really connect with the learner in an attempt to understand what triggers the child's behaviour. This line of thought is also supported by Marston (2001: 79) who said the following: "Without personal connection with the child, our techniques and interventions are effective only on the surface, because the children who hate live a reality that is distorted and clouded by negative emotions." Teaching the learner insight cannot occur if the educator has no understanding of the context of the learner, because according to Redl & Wineman (in Henley, 1997: 7) "behaviour is a function of the learner interacting with the environment." The LSCI can only be effective if the educator understands what situations may have an impact on the learner. It is also important to note that the child is exposed to situations that might be immutable for the educator, but this does not mean that the educator can shy away from his responsibility to teach the learner the necessary skills to apply self-control. It is, therefore, imperative that the educator knows what is meant by self-control and how the learner can be helped to remain in touch with reality so that he is ready to learn.

The research done by Redl and Wineman and the work done by Long and his colleagues on the LSCI Model forced us to look differently at the treatment of behaviour problems. The researcher is also of the opinion that the LSCI is a dynamic tool that could be applied successfully to teach learners the necessary skills to apply self-control in a crisis situation. It is a tool that is responsive to both the inner-reality of the child and the incident.

AS mentioned earlier, it is however imperative that the educator must connect with the learner with the aim to establish a relationship. This can be achieved by creating a caring classroom environment as an initial step.

4.1 BUILDING A CARING CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT

A supportive and caring environment and more specific the classroom can be regarded, as discussed in chapter three, as a place where learners feel physically and psychologically secure. It is an environment where there is trust, because most learners with emotional- and behavioural problems struggle to engage in open, honest and trusting relationships. Meese (1996: 163) regards such an environment as a "dependable environment" which is led by an educator who is proficient in certain effective counseling skills like listening or communication skills, but one who is willing to build a honest and trusting partnership with the learner. This partnership can reach new heights if the educator is willing to address his instructional styles and respect the learners by supporting them during difficult times.

In order to build a caring classroom, the following process must be implemented:

- **Establishing relationships**

In order for the educator to teach self-control skills to disruptive learners, they must, as mentioned in chapter two, rise above the control paradigm. Many learners with self-defeating behaviour patterns do not want to be controlled by adults or even their peers.

To be able to teach outside the control paradigm it is imperative that educators create a classroom environment that encourages the use of choices, but also an environment which influences them to make good choices. An important way to establish a caring classroom environment is to establish a supportive relationship with the learner. The atmosphere in the classroom can be influenced by the way the educator instill trust or as Phillips (1998: 19) puts it "by the quality of the relationship you have with your student."

Our main focus in classrooms is for learners to learn. This they can only do if they are open and receptive. If, according to Phillips (1998: 19) they are "'guarded' in order to protect themselves from what they see as your judgement, they will learn very little."

Experienced educators know how important it is to build positive relationships if they want to support any child effectively. If they become aware of the power of relationships, their attitudes toward disruptive learners will change and it will influence the way they give support or implement strategies to deal with disruptive behaviour.

According to Brendtro et al. (1990: 58), research shows "that the quality of human relationships in schools and youth service programs may be more influential than the specific techniques or interventions developed." This is also true for counselors who although trained in different fields, can experience failure if they do not build quality relationships with their clients. If one cannot develop quality rapport with a learner, it will definitely influence one's approach in dealing with youth-at-risk. Relationships are also the reason why certain behaviour modification systems or strategies work for some educators but not for others.

Educators must also be aware that if they create a positive classroom climate, learners will adapt easier to the different instructional styles, because adapting or as Nelson-Jones (1993: 19) puts it "Change is more likely to occur if learning takes place within the context of supportive relationships." The type of relationship they establish with educators or peers motivate them to work. The majority of learners, according to Glasser (1993: 30), will work hard for educators they like or care for (belonging), respect and who respect them back (power), with whom they feel comfortable to laugh with (fun), or for those educators who allow them to think and act for themselves (freedom), and for those with whom they feel secure (survival). A learner will decide very quickly if an educator is worth working for. If they feel they can trust their educator, they are willing to explore, better able to take risks that are involved in learning new skills and engage in activities which they know are of benefit to them.

Positive relationships help them to understand themselves better and they can get in touch with their own needs. Supportive relationships give them the confidence to drop their defensiveness and take up personal responsibility for their life and behaviour (Krovetz, 1999: 58; Nelson-Jones, 1993: 19; Kohn, 1996: 111).

Eric Fromm (in Brendtro, et al., 1990: 62) sees the "loving relationship not as an affect but an action, a process of giving, not feeling". By interpreting it in this light he identifies four basic elements in a relationship:

- **Caring** shows that you are concerned about the life and growth of the learner in the relationship.
- **Knowledge** of the learner by showing that you genuinely understands the learner's feelings, even if they are not readily apparent. In a relationship like this there is no place for superficial awareness.
- **Respect** is the ability to see the learner as he is and to allow him to develop without exploitation.
- **Responsibility** means to be ready to act to meet the needs, expressed or unexpressed, of the learner.

To be a caring person and to regard the relationship as an action and not as a feeling, according to Kohn (1996: 112) an educator must first be a person. He believes that to be a person in front of kids is to be vulnerable and this is not always possible for educators if they also had to deal with emotional problems during their childhood. Kohn also makes it clear that in the process of reaching out to children to develop genuine and warm relationships one may compromise one's ability to control them. Glasser (1993: 30-32) also supports the idea of vulnerability. Important for him is that learners must know their educator well so that a positive classroom climate can be created. To kindle quality relationships educators must make an effort to do as much as possible to help their learners to know them.

Kohn (1996: 112) also emphasizes that for an educator to be a caring or real person in a school context he/she must be able to remember details of a learner's life, be available for private conversations and also be able to talk about nothing in particular. Phillips (1998: 20) agrees with the above view and also believes that it helps to gain insight in your worst learner's behaviour if you knew his/her past. Many learners were abused physically, emotionally, sexually which resulted in distrusting adults. Caring educators converse with learners in a distinctive way by thinking about what they say and how the learner will interpret the conversation. By doing this, the educator shows that he is also taking the learner's feelings into account as mentioned by Fromm. Kohn believes that this expects from educators to respond authentically and respectfully rather than "giving patronizing pats on the head or otherwise slathering them with positive reinforcement." When the educator establishes an authentic relationship he explains everything and give reasons for his/her requests. As previously mentioned, learners will be asked what they are thinking and their answers will be respected.

The above view of relationship building is also supported by Kotter (2000:14) who believes that crucial to developing "solid relationships are authenticity, genuiness, caring, respect and compassion." These are the essence of what it means to make contact with and truly understand another human being. He also stresses that the act of helping or to give support is not about the application of a set of skills and techniques; it also requires of the educator to attempt to bring comfort and constructive input to a learner who is experiencing emotional pain.

Children want to feel valued, respected and known by the adults of a school. They are therefore, hungry for close relationships as every other person who wishes to be connected to and understood by others. Brendtro et al. (1990: 60) makes it clear that "the most potent behavioural influence that an adult can have in the life of a child comes when an attachment has been formed." Attachment with a significant adult forces curiosity, self-directedness, empathy, achievement, autonomy and altruism.

It is also true that many adults believe that if they bond on this level they will loose their influence and authority. Korozak (in Brendtro, et al., 1990: 60) states it so clearly that "your authority is based on the strength of your status as a beloved and admired model person." Adults who are admired can be very successful in giving support, because children respond more positive to encouragement and correction when it comes from an adult they respect and whose opinion they valued. Children are also more inclined to adopt the adult's values and behaviour they admire. It is, therefore, important for educators to know that the establishment of a truly caring relationship does not only mean meeting the emotional needs of a learner, but what is important is that they are setting a powerful example. Kohn (1996: 113) stresses that whenever an adult listens patiently or shows concern, or apologize for something he said that he regrets, he is modeling for learners and teaching them how they might be with each other.

Kotter (2000: 16-18) also emphasizes that "one of the common elements of every helping system is an emphasis on creating an alliance that is open, trusting, accepting and safe. This therapeutic relationship which forms the core for everything else we do in the helping process, becomes intrinsically healing in many ways." As previously mentioned, it offers support and motivates risk taking. He is also of the opinion that "counseling uses the therapeutic relationships as a means to systematically shape more functional behaviour and to extinguish self-defeating actions."

Bemark & Keys (2000: 43) ask of educators to establish an alliance or a bond so that they can be able to break through the strong feelings and reactions of learners. This alliance is most effective when created through a professional bond on a meaningful level. To create a meaningful relationship, according to Krovetz (1999: 58), it is important to look for strengths and possibilities within each child and this means to look beyond the "hostility of some youth to the insecurities that lie underneath." He believes that a close bond with a competent, emotionally stable adult is essential in the lives of children who had to overcome great adversity. "Relationship-reluctant children", according to Brendtro et al. (1990: 59) must be supported and exposed to positive

relationships to overcome "insecure attachments." Very often disruptive learners do not want to engage in meaningful relationships, because of fear, suspicion or they may be antagonistic. Meaningful relationships will only be formed with other peers who also distrust adults. Although they may give the impression to adults that they allowed them to bond, they actually do not allow adults to bond with them emotionally.

Instead of using force and generating greater distance, as is the normal reaction to aggression, according to Bemark & Keys (2000: 44), educators must rather learn to forge purposeful connection with the aggressive learner. This requires of educators to break through the 'emotional clutter" that is overwhelming the learner. To find a window through the emotional chaos to address the underlying problem, certain skills are required, because one cannot just ask a learner who is so angry and loaded with emotions to calm down. A whole process must kick in to break through the self-defeating behaviour of defensiveness, anger, sadness, etc. to find the person underneath and to establish an alliance or bond. Brendtro et al. (1990: 60) clearly stresses that 'absence of dependence support creates greater havoc in a child's development."

Krovetz (1999: 58) describes so eloquently that 'a good school is one at which adults are wrapped around students, because only relationships change people." This makes it clear to us that before we can think of implementing any strategies or applying certain techniques there should be a gentle, nurturing and healing relationship which forms the foundation in everything we do.

- Establishing hope

The second important factor in creating a caring environment is to establish hope in the learner. Medler (in Phillips, 1998: 19) once said that" hope precedes responsibility. If you demand responsibility before a student feels hope, you'll end up with a power struggle."

All learners, and also difficult learners possess hope. At-risk learners possess very little hope. The reasons for this, as cited in Phillips (1998: 20) could be:

- A lack of support in the home.
- Failure in school (often due to being taught in a style different from how he/she is inclined to learn).
- Poverty, along with the negative environments that come along with it (especially if they believe there is no hope of getting out of the situation).
- Minority racial status.

At-risk learners have lost the art of hope and do not make an effort to try which leads to a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Phillips (1998: 20) believes that educators can give learners hope by "believing in them and in their future." If the learner knows that the adult beliefs in him/her, and he/she experience caring from a respecting and responsible adult the learner can develop resiliency.

- **Resiliency**

Phillips (1998: 29) is of the opinion that educators should stop talking about negative attitudes and rather focus on building resiliency by teaching the necessary skills by providing an environment where learners can flourish.

Resiliency, as cited in Krovetz (1999: 2) can be regarded as "the ability to bounce back successfully despite exposure to severe risks." To develop a resilient learner certain protective factors (Krovetz, 1999: 2; Phillips, 1998: 26,29) such as the following must be present:

- A supportive and caring relationship.
- A belief in the learners and keeping your expectations for their progress and behaviour high with purposeful support.
- Discover their strengths and help them see that their strengths are stronger than their problems.
- Creating opportunities for them to experience and demonstrate their strengths. Krovetz (1999: 4) emphasizes that if there are meaningful opportunities learners are less afraid of the "repercussions of their destructive behaviour." Meaningful opportunities can be in the form of establishing a choir, band, school newspaper, sport, etc.
- Creating a setting where they can participate and contribute to an environment where they feel they belong.
- Support where they realize that they are in charge of their own destiny.
- They must have a sense of purpose.
- Help them develop goals and experience success.
- A belief in a bright future where they can create a better life.

If at-risk learners are aware that there are people that believe in them and they start to belief in themselves they are able to face challenges in life.

Resilient Learners have certain attributes in common (Phillips, 1998: 30; Krovetz, 1999: 7):

- Social competence: they have a positive attitude that elicits a response and helpfulness from others, which leads to the establishment of positive relationships with peers and adults.
- Problem solving skills: Planning that facilitates seeing oneself in control or in charge of their own lives. They have an internal locus of control and do not blame people.

- Autonomy: They have a sense of identity, an ability to act independently and exert some control over their environment.
- A sense of purpose and hope: They have goals for the future, are persistent and honestly believe that they can achieve their goals. In spite of many challenges they face, they can make good choices.

Many of our learners with self-defeating behaviour lack the resiliency characteristics as mentioned by the above authors. They have no sense of hope and belief other people are to blame for their circumstances. They don't have the ability to rise above their situation.

Educators can help learners to become more resilient by teaching them certain resiliency skills. By teaching them these skills, learners can develop a sense of responsibility and change their attitudes. The resiliency skills that should be taught to these learners, according to Phillips (1998: 31-33) are:

- Being able to recognize your own strengths and abilities, even in the absence of positive outside reinforcement. This is a skill, according to Phillips, that cannot be taught. It is about a positive adult who makes a learner aware of his/her strengths and believes in him/her.
- Understanding that your happiness is not dependent upon what happens to you and that you CHOOSE whether to be happy or unhappy, positive or negative, powerful or a victim, by choosing what you focus on.
- Relating in a respectful and assertive way, knowing that "You get what you give".
- Understanding that taking responsibility means being powerful and in charge of your own life, while not being responsible means playing victim, waiting for others to take the initiative.
- Being able to choose your own abilities or behaviours, regardless of the situation or the provocation.
- Developing the confidence that you can make things happen.

- Using positive self-talk to motivate yourself to succeed.
- Choosing to take positive risks and to learn from any mistakes, instead of being discouraged by them.
- Understanding that you can shape your life the way you want through goal-setting and conscious decision-making.
- Using the power of visualization to make your dreams happen.

The way educators can teach these learners these skills will be discussed in more detail in chapter five.

By creating a classroom that will foster resiliency, learners can become powerful human beings. Phillips (1998: 37) describes a powerful person so eloquently by stating that:

"Being powerful means being able to control oneself- not others".

This also means that they are free to choose their own attitudes and behaviour.

One can infer from the above discussion, that in order to create a sense of responsibility and insight amongst disruptive learners and to enhance their ability to exercise self-control, a caring classroom is a pre-requisite.

4.2. STRATEGIES TO ENHANCE TEACHING

As mentioned previously, educators must adapt their teaching styles to the way these learners learn. To facilitate change by developing self-control and social skills, learning to solve problems and to communicate their feelings effectively, educators should steer away from conventional teaching methods.

Over the years adults have tried to change self-destructive behaviour of difficult learners by preaching to them or by forcing their value system on the learners. Good intentions were shown, but as emphasized in chapter two the mistake they made was to moralize. The Ministry of Education shares this view in their document, Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy (2001: 21) and emphasizes that "values cannot be legislated. If they were imposed they would remain rootless and lifeless." Disruptive learners are immune to the traditional approaches as discussed in chapter two.

According to Elias, Zius, Weissberg, Frey, Greenberg, Haynes, Kessler, Schwabb-Stone and Shriver (1997: 56) teaching by example, or modeling is a powerful technique that educaors can use, intentionally or when busy with sports or real-life situations during the school day. They are also of the opinion that "all aspects of teacher behaviour reflect their social and emotional relationships, making a powerful statement of values and expectations."

- Cueing and Coaching

A mistake many educators make is to assume once a skill is taught and modeled, learners will transfer it when they interact with other people. It is very seldom that learners will spontaneously apply the skill they have learned. Elias et al. (1997: 59) believe "it is the fundamental responsibility of adults to prompt, cue and coach students to use the skills to which they have been introduced." Learners should be coached to think of different ways to react or respond, to develop positive solutions to problems or as Elias et al. (1997: 59) suggest "make a request in an engaging voice tone, or keep calm when upset."

- Scaffolding

The use of this strategy is crucial in the diagnostic stage of the LSCI model, because careful questioning according to Elias et al. (1997: 59) can serve as a "catalyst for

creative thinking and new insights on the part of the child." The aim is to help the learner to think differently or independently about the volatile situation he was in and to share his ideas or feelings of the crisis situation.

This skill is important to acquire, because it can help educators to defuse a volatile situation or to prevent a disruptive situation occur. This strategy provides excellent opportunity to transfer what was learned during this crisis.

Educators can facilitate the process of change by using the following supplementary aids to enhance and make social skills instruction more effective:

- Expressive Arts

The expressive arts, according to Walker & Shea (1988: 166), refer to "interventions that encourage and permit children to express personal feelings and emotions in creative activities with minimal constraints." To help a child be mentally sound, educators must guide learners to express their positive and negative emotions and feelings in a competent manner. Awareness must be created that feelings and emotions can be expressed verbally and physically, but that they should avoid showing it in a socially unacceptable manner.

The expressive arts are an excellent way and opportunity for children who are not very verbal and not in control of themselves to reduce stresses and frustrations without offending others. Art can help learners reach those feelings that cannot be exposed by words or talking (Meese, 1996: 181). Children can draw on paper or the computer how they see themselves or imagine how others perceive them. Walker & Shea (1988: 166) mention that the expressive arts are not very beneficial in the affective domain, but they can provide various cognitive and psychomotor benefits.

It is also very pleasing to see that the Department of Education is placing great emphasis on Arts and Culture as a learning area. For the Department of Education (Manifesto on Values, Education and Democracy 2001: 37) the performing and visual arts are "potentially powerful instruments of promoting tolerance..."

The expressive arts are an excellent way to liberate the learners and to give them a model of non-coercive teamwork where one needs to show patience and tolerance. Art as a therapeutic medium is a growth oriented experience which can improve communication, socialization, creativity, self-expression, self-exploration and assertive behaviour. It can, therefore, provide learners with behaviour difficulties opportunities to release their emotions in a safe way and to learn appropriate social skills (Meese, 1996: 181).

Uhlin (1992 in Meese, 1996: 181-183) contends that art activities can provide learners the following:

- A channel for emotional expression through painting, drawing, collage or clay modeling.
- An outlet for the release of tensions and expressions of emotions through art techniques incorporating sub-skills such as hammering, squeezing, or bending.
- A feeling of belonging to a peer group through sharing of materials and involvement in group activity.
- A sense of being part of the school environment through display of one's work in the classroom or hallway.
- Opportunities for social develop good work habits such as the use and care of art materials and the respect of the rights and property of others.
- Opportunities for exploring, experimenting and producing art forms with various media, techniques and themes.

Educators are normally not trained as art therapists and should, therefore, not look for hidden meanings in the learners art work. Art activities can be effectively utilized to support feelings. In a classroom set-up, using art in this nature, it can become therapeutic as it facilitates change itself rather than becoming a tool for psychotherapy.

- Music

Music as therapy (Walker & Shea, 1988: 172) encourages personal freedom and interpretation. It provides a unique personal experience that has its own meaning for each individual.

The above authors believe music therapy can:

- Facilitate cognitive development, through abstract thinking, increasing attending, and providing practice for conceptual skills.
- Facilitate affective development and social skills and encourage social interaction.
- Assist in the development of the self-concept, develop self-reliance and provide an opportunity to be successful.
- Provide creative experiences, increase expressive skills and provide an excellent outlet for 'blowing steam".
- Be used as a distraction for children with behaviour disorders.

Music, especially combined with rhythm instruments or with dance, can provide learners with an outlet for the release of tension and emotions. According to Nordoff and Robbins (1971, in Meese, 1996: 184) children experience through music "a sense of belonging and sharing with others experiences critical for enhancing self-worth." Music, therefore, enhances social skills through cooperative activities such as singing together, playing together in a band or orchestra, etc.

- Puppetry

Walker & Shea (1988: 169) is also of the opinion that ordinary homemade puppets can be used to help learners to express their needs and their moods. This is especially helpful with children who cannot and will not communicate directly with an adult.

- Written word

Through writing personal conflict and frustrations can be externalized.

Dehouske (in Walker & Shea, 1988: 167) regards the written word as "a modality for self-expression, self-exploration and problem solving. Through story writing, students reveal their perceptions, attitudes, coping skills and problem solving strategies." Story writing tasks can be structured to encourage learners to explore the decision-making process and identify behavioural alternatives and consequences. Written forms may include poems, journal entries, stories, essays, articles, etc.

- Spoken words

If the child is developmentally and emotionally ready to enter verbal psychotherapy, it can be a very enriching experience for the child. Children can be supported to create their own authentic story-telling sessions where feelings, emotions and frustrations can be relived in order to address it (Walker & Shea, 1988: 174).

- Bibliotherapy

Literature can be used as a therapeutic process as an interaction between the learner and the book. Russel & Russel (1979 in Walker & Shea, 1988: 174) regard this intervention as a method to encourage youth to "fulfill their needs, relieve pressures, and to improve

mental and emotional well-being." When choosing literature the child's needs, interests and development should be taken into account.

The advantages are that the child can identify with the character and perceive them self as part of the story. Through reading learners can be confronted in a protected and benign way with their own problems such as to cope with divorce, group pressure, sibling relationships, failure, etc. Children become emotionally involve in the plot and can obtain a better understanding of themselves and their problems by identifying with the characters or situations in the story. The use of literature can foster reading and it can be used to teach social skills. Skills that are necessary to apply self-control, such as anticipating consequences, learning from past experiences, resolving conflicts, etc. permeates children's literature (Henley, 1997: 32; Walker & Shea, 1988: 175, Meese, 1996: 186).

- Cooperative learning

Learning within a cooperative group can satisfy a learner's need to belong and to be independent of the educator. Through cooperative learning, which involves a broad set of instructional strategies, motivation can be enhanced and learners will feel that they are more in control of their learning.

Groups should be constituted in such a manner that it includes learners with mixed abilities and achievement levels. This is necessary so that the educator can tap into the strengths of certain learners so that less able learners can learn from more able learners.

Cooperative learning can enhance self-control skills by reducing aggression, increase acceptance by peers and increase self-esteem, because they feel they can make a contribution. Cooperative learning can give learners the skills to participate in group activities, learning from past experiences, coping with competition, resolving conflicts, creativity, improve divergent thinking and problem-solving skills, and it can change

their attitude to learning (Henley, 1997: 30; Porter, 2000: 152,168; Johnson & Johnson, 1996: 13).

Johnson & Johnson (1996: 9:5) make it clear that by placing socially unskilled learners in a group and expect them to exhibit cooperative skills can be a recipe for disaster. Some learners do have socialization problems. They believe that educators must "teach students the social skills required for interacting effectively with others and motivate students to use the skills if students are to become socially competent."

- Peer and Cross-age Tutoring

Henley (1997: 31) believes that peer and cross-age tutoring places the learner "squarely in the centre of the teaching-learning process". This method encourages the learner to take full responsibility for his/her learning and is "highly motivational" when used with at-risk, disabled and slow learners.

When learners are given a certain amount of responsibility, it can increase self-confidence and improve their behaviour. Because disruptive learners are normally excluded from selection or pleasant activities, peer and cross-age tutoring is, just like cooperative learning a wonderful way to include them and it will give them a sense of purpose and control during the learning activities.

Peer and cross-age tutoring provides the same intrinsic incentives, as advocated by Glasser's control theory as discussed in chapter three, whereby learners should be given the opportunity to direct their own learning and actions.

Henley (1997: 31) stresses that this method can help learners to anticipate consequences, demonstrate patience, verbalize feelings, and describe the effect of behaviour on others.

- Brainstorming

According to Henley (1997: 37) brainstorm provides the educator and learners "with a structured method for developing creative ideas, helps students think, because it capitalizes on both analysis and intuition."

This method can increase confidence levels, because during brainstorming sessions there are no right or wrong answers. Disruptive and impulsive learners can learn patience, learn to accept other people's views and comments, increase frustration tolerance, because brainstorming can be fun and high-level participation is assured.

- Modeling

Modeling is defined (Goldstein, 1980: 16) as "learning by imitation." It is an effective and a reliable technique to help learners acquire new behaviour and to strengthen or weaken previously learned behaviour.

Socially unacceptable behaviour that can be eliminated through modeling is acting aggressively, becoming too emotionally aroused, etc. Behaviour it can strengthen is interacting socially, how to address people properly, behaving emphatically, self-disclosure, etc.

Goldstein (1980: 38-39) is of the opinion that if educators decide to model a skill it should depict the behavioural steps that constitute that skill being taught in a clear and unambiguous manner. The steps making up the skill must be modeled in the correct sequence.

- Role-play

Skills modeled by the educator can be role-played to increase its effectiveness. The assumption is, according to Walker & Shea (1988: 169) that role-play helps individuals to gain insight or greater understanding of their behaviour if they act out various aspects of their lives. It encourages learners to look at a situation from another person's view. This view is also supported by Rooth (1995: 11) who believes that role-play "gives participants experience in practicing a variety of social skills and in discussing, analyzing and identifying effective behaviour strategies." By becoming aware of another person's view, learners are less egocentric and develop empathy (Henley, 1997: 33).

Role-play should not be thought of as a dramatic play, but an impromptu activity where learners get the chance to learn new skills or to clarify feelings and emotions as they relate to existing reality.

Walker & Shea (1988: 170) believe that drama as a therapeutic technique can be used for several purposes in the education setting. They can be helpful:

- To assist in finding solutions, making decisions, and assuming responsibility for personal social-emotional problems.
- To assist in affective education, increase positive feelings and emotions and improve communication skills.
- To assist in solving problems associated with normal child and adolescent development.
- To facilitate group cohesiveness.
- To facilitate experimentation with adult roles.
- In the conceptualization of abstract terms.

- In offering entertainment and recreation opportunities.
- In the observation of learners in various situations.

Although role-play is a good way to instill values and teach skills, educators must be cautious when they apply drama therapy. Learners must get the chance to "de-role" so that they can return to the person they normally are (Walker & Shea, 1988: 172; Rooth, 1995: 11).

Learners lacking the skills to be socially acceptable, especially the learner showing no remorse or the impulsive learner can learn a great deal through the above mentioned facilitation methods. It forces them in a way to accommodate others by respecting their feelings, their different opinions, and to learn from others how one should act towards and address other people.

4.3 SURFACE MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

Walker & Shea (1988: 176) points out that the above facilitation methods do not change unacceptable behaviours immediately. Certain techniques to manage the behaviour are needed that can be implemented to "interfere" with ongoing unacceptable behaviour.

They are of the opinion that educators have the right to interfere with behaviour which:

- Present a real danger.
- Are psychologically harmful to the child and others.
- Lead to excessive excitement, loss of control, or chaos.
- Prohibit the continuation of the program.
- Lead to the destruction of property.
- Encourage the spread of negativism in the group.

- Provide opportunities to clarify individual and group values, standards and social rules.
- Lead to conflict with others outside the group.
- Compromise the educator's mental health and ability to function.

Redl and Wineman (in Walker and Shea, 1988: 176) developed 12 behaviour management interventions that can be used within the psychodynamic framework, for the management of surface behaviour. The behaviour influence techniques are:

- **Planned ignoring**

Sometimes learners will engage in unacceptable behaviour in an effort to gain the attention of their classmates or the educator. There are many such behaviour that appear to be harmless, but can annoy or frustrate the educator. These behavioures could be pencil tapping, body movements, whistling, snorting, desktop dropping, etc. To eliminate the behaviour the educator can choose to ignore it. The educator should give no response and eventually the behaviour will decrease.

- **Signal interference**

Non-verbal techniques can be very potent to make the learner aware that he is displaying unacceptable behaviour. Non-verbal signals such as eye contact, a frown, finger snapping, toe tapping, book snapping, light flicking are examples of techniques that can be used to alert the learner. These techniques will save the learner embarrassment in front of his classmates.

- **Proximity control**

The proximity of the educator can reduce the level of unacceptable behaviour. It can have a positive effect of learners who are experiencing anxiety or frustration. Their presence can have a calming effect on the learner.

- **Interest boosting**

It is very difficult for disruptive learners to stay on task, because they get bored very easily. This can be addressed by giving a learner a magazine of a topic that he likes. If he is half way through a task, praise him for his efforts and acknowledge neatness. The child will lift his energy levels to complete the task and also to read the magazine.

- **Tension reduction through humor**

Some learners do become very tensed if they are busy with difficult tasks. Humor can be applied to help the learners to relax and reduce tension. Here the educator should be very cautious that the joke is not harmful to any learner in the class.

- **Program restructuring**

Educators should be vigilant for learners' response to a lesson. They must recognize when a lesson is not going well or not suitable for the class. Flexibility is very important, because plan B must slot in before the learners become restless or lose total interest. The lesson can be restructured or postponed.

- **Support from routine**

Normally learners flourish if there is structure and some routine. It is very important that learners with behaviour problems know their schedule and the routine of the school

or class. If there are going to be changes they should be informed well in advanced to avoid any disruptions.

- **Direct appeal**

If the child is in an incident where inappropriate behaviour were displayed, the educator can effectively and quickly resolve the problem through direct appeal on values. The educator can focus on his sense of fairness. The direct appeal can be based on the following:

- The educator's personal relationship with the individual.
- The consequences that will result if the unacceptable behaviour continues.
- The teacher's authority over the learner and group.

- **Antiseptic bouncing**

The educator must look out for signs of agitation or frustration that can lead to physical or verbal disruption. It is better to remove the learner from the work setting. This removal is called antiseptic bouncing. This is regarded as a positive intervention strategy and not as a punishment. Antiseptic bouncing, if handled in a humane way, provides the learner with an opportunity to avoid embarrassment, to calm down, reorganize thought, etc.

- **Physical restraint**

When these learners are out of control, they feel helpless and have no control over their verbal and physical abuse. On such occasion physical restraint is necessary. The educator must remain calm and should communicate to the learner that he/she will, in spite of the outbreak, protect him. The educator may say something like 'I will protect you" or "You are safe".

After regaining control, the educator and learner can reflect on the incident and look at ways to avoid such acting out behaviour.

These surface management techniques are effective with directly observable behaviour and should be part of educator's methods of managing classroom behaviour. The key to the success is consistency.

4.4 BASIC COUNSELLING SKILLS

In addition to being classroom managers and trying to complete a syllabus, teachers have added responsibilities. The reality is that teachers must often be in a supportive role to learners beyond their responsibilities as curriculum experts, sport managers, etc.

Many teachers have no problem with helping a learner with academic work. However, if they are asked to help a learner with their personal problems, they are reluctant to assume this responsibility. Many of them are of the opinion that helping troubled learners is not their area of professional competence, they do not have the skills to support a learner in distress and the learner should, therefore, be referred. The reality, however, is that when problems occur in the classroom, the school counsellor is not immediately available. The responsibility of the teacher, according to Long & Morse (1996: 307) is to provide a secure, safe and appropriate learning environment for troubled learners and their classmates. Teachers cannot sit and wait until professional help arrives. Long & Morse (1996: 308) makes it clear that "just as teachers are trained medically to administer CPR to a student when a student is choking, teachers need to integrate their instructional skills with specific mental health practices."

Teachers are often the first people to detect a troubled child who could suffer from abuse, neglect, drug abuse, and other emotional problems that could lead to disruptive behaviour. They need to comfort learners who are feeling sad, lonely, anxious,

frustrated, angry or depressed. It is, therefore, important for teachers to have basic counselling skills to help learners during normal activities in class when a crisis occur and there is a need to "personalize content" or to give "emotional first-aid" on the spot (Kottler & Kottler, 2000:v-vi; Redl, 1966: 46). These additional skills acknowledge that the current conditions prevailing in many classrooms, according to Long & Morse (1996: 308) "create a need for deeper and more effective understanding of the social-emotional problems of troubled youth." Counselling which is a process where a relationship is established, uses the therapeutic relationship as " a means to systematically shape more fully functioning behaviour" (Kottler, et al., 2000: 18) and to extinguish self-defeating behaviour by helping the learner "to make meaningful and informed choices to address his/her problems" (Cristiani, et al., 1986: 3-4). Glasser (1992: 85) sees counselling as "talking to learners with the purpose of helping them to choose more need-satisfying behaviours."

The basic skills that teachers need to fulfill a supportive role are:

- Attending skills

To be attentive is the first and most basic task if you are going to help a learner. Your behaviour must inspire confidence and trust, and it must communicate that the learner is the most important person during that moment in time. The teacher's attending skills will exhibit to the learner that he/she is involved in what the learner is trying to share with him (Cristiani, et al., 1986: 145).

Attending, according to Kottler et al. (2000: 47) is giving your "total, complete and undivided interest." They are also of the opinion that children who have emotional problems are so used to being devalued by adults that they can easily pick up by the attending behaviours of adults if they are sincere or not.

Egan (in Cristiani et al. 1986: 145) lists eye contact, adopting an open posture to convey support and alliance, facing the person squarely, leaning slightly forward and assuming a natural and relaxed position as important cues to communicate your intense interests in what is being said. Through facial expressions one can convey interest, support or other messages (Wood & Long, 1991: 160).

It is, therefore, important to note that attending skills involve the use of non-verbal behaviours (head nods, smiles, eye contact, body positions) and minimal verbal encouragement ("I see") to show that you are interested in what is being said. Kottler et al. (2000: 47) makes it clear that " although these skills are a requirement to earn a person's trust, they are relatively empty gestures unless you are actually listening and can prove that you have understood."

- Listening skills

The challenge for the teacher is to demonstrate to the learner that he/she did not only hear what the learner said, but that you understand what is being said or what they trying to tell you. To show that you do understand can be done through passive listening and active listening. When you are busy with passive listening, according to Cristiani et al. (1986: 147) you create the opportunity for the learner to explore his feelings, attitudes, values and behaviours. It is important for the teacher to know what happened during the event or crisis and how the learner experienced it. Does the learner feel he/she was treated unfairly and what went through his/her thoughts that pushed them to behave in a certain way. The teacher must also know if he realizes how his behaviour affects other people and how did it make them react toward him.

During passive listening the learner gets the opportunity to delve further into thoughts and feelings and to reflect on the implications.

Active listening, on the other hand, according to Cristiani et al. (1986: 148), is the "process of tuning in carefully to the client's messages and responding accurately to the meaning behind the messages" and it exhibits, according Kottler et al. (2000: 47) your ability to prove that you really did hear what has been said by the way you are responding.

Attending - and listening skills, together with inter-personal sensitivity helps you to put yourself in the shoes of the learner so that you can sense what the learner is feeling, thinking and experiencing. By giving feedback of the content and feelings of the learner, you are not just busy with a social conversation. It demands of one to move to different communication levels where one is sensitive to vocal cues, observing body language, and taking into account the personal and social context the conversation is taking place (Kottler, et al., 2000: 48; Cristiani, et al., 1986: 148-149; Nelson-Jones, 1993: 86). Glasser (1992: 85) also stresses that it does no good to focus on the learners' feelings and biological responses, because we cannot directly change his/her feelings or the way his/her body is reacting to stress. Teachers must be sensitive and compassionate to the learner's "upsets", but we must also focus on how we can change his behaviour - his actions and thoughts.

Nelson-Jones (1993: 86-87) is of the opinion that good listening skills:

- Help you to establish and maintain a good rapport between you and the learner. This is good for developing effective relationships.
- Help you to lead the shy and anxious learner to disclose more of the events, his experiences, feelings, inner world, etc. learners feel they are accepted, safe and understood.
- Help learners to experience and express their feelings and to acknowledge that their inner emotions are in turmoil.
- Create a knowledge base.

- Create an influence base for e.g. To develop certain skills that are necessary to socialize appropriately.
- Help learners to assume responsibility.

Cristiani (2000: 145-150) takes the skill of listening further by noting that the beginning of the process of learning is the ability to restate the content or paraphrase what was said in different words. This is, according to Cristiani not enough, because responding to learners' feelings are equally important. By responding to feelings you try to understand the learner more accurately from his/her internal frame of reference. To reflect feelings sensitively, accurately and helpfully Kottler et al. (2000: 52) is of the opinion that one must be able to do the following:

- Listen very carefully to subtle nuances of what is being said.
- Decode the deeper meanings of communication.
- Identify accurately the feelings a person is experiencing.
- Communicate this understanding in a way that can be expected.

- Observing skills

Many troubled learners do not have the verbal skills to express themselves. Some close up totally. This is sometimes interpreted as stubbornness or lack of co-operation. It could be that these learners are struggling to tell adults what is bothering them, because of a lack of skills and trust.

Educators must then look beyond the words to identify the needs of the learner. Long and Fecser (2000: 38) believe that words only create 7% of meaning in a conversation, tone of voice 38%, but facial expressions can give 55% of meaning during communication. It is, therefore, very important that educators acquire the skill to diagnose the non-verbal behaviour of learners.

Long and Fecser (2000: 39-42) regard the following as the main areas to focus on when learners are struggling to communicate:

- **Eyes**

  - **Direct eye contact** can mean that there is a readiness or willingness for interpersonal communication or exchange.
  - **Lack of sustained eye contact** could be interpreted as discomfort or embarrassment or a preoccupation with something. It could also be a sign that the learner is withdrawing from the topic or conversation.
  - **Lowering eyes or looking down or away** can mean that the learner is preoccupied.
  - **Staring or fixation on the person or object** could mean that the learner is uptight or preoccupied.
  - **Darting eyes or blinking rapidly.** Educators can look out for rapid eye movements or twitching brows. This could be interpreted that there is anxiety or excitation present.
  - **Moisture or tears** can interpreted as sadness, frustration or happiness. It could that the educator is touching on sensitive areas.
  - **Eye shifts:** learner is thinking or recalling what has been said. The learner can also show a keen interest or satisfaction.
  - **Pupil dilation:** learner could show a keen interest or is satisfied about what has been said during the interview.

- **Mouth**

  - **Smiles:** The learner is thinking about something positive or is experiencing positive feelings about the content of the conversation.
  - **Tight lips (pursed):** Feelings of anger or hostility can be experienced.

- **Lower lips quivers or biting the lips:** Feelings of anxiety or sadness could be experienced.
- **Open mouth without speaking:** Learner is caught off guard or by surprise. It can also be a sign of fatigue or suppression of yawn.

- **Facial expressions**

- **Eye contact with smiles:** A sign of happiness or a sense of being comfortable with the situation.
- **Eyes strained, furrowed brow or mouth tight:** Learner has feelings of anger, concern or sadness.
- **Eyes rigid and mouth tight:** A sign of preoccupation, anxiety or fear.
- **Face flushed or red blotches appear on the face or neck:** A sign of anxiety discomfort or embarrassment.
- **Hanging head down or jaw downward to chest:** Feelings of sadness can be experienced or doubt or concern can be present.

- **Arms and hands**

- **Arms folded across:** The learner is avoiding any interpersonal exchange or is showing his/her dislike about something.
- **Trembling or fidgety hands** are signs of anxiety or an example of fear of peer manipulation.
- **Fists clenching objects or holding hands tightly** can also be a sign of fear or anger. It can be feelings of discomfort if it is the first interview.

- **Legs and feet**

- **Crossing and uncrossing legs repeatedly** could be interpreted as anxiety or depression, especially if the learner is talking rapidly in spurts about problems.

- **Foot tapping** can be a sign of anxiety, boredom or impatience.

- **Voice level and pitch**

  - **Whispering or speaking inaudibly.** Leaner has difficulty to disclose facts or talk about the problem especially if there are sessions of silence.
  - **Pitch changes.** The topics of conversation have different emotional meanings to the learner. For example if the educator is discussing his sport achievements, the voice level could be moderate, but as soon as he touches on his transgressions, the voice pitch could rise considerably.

- **Fluency in speech**

  - **Stuttering, hesitation or speech errors** can be a sign of sensitivity about a topic that is being discussed or it can be a sign of discomfort or anxiety.
  - **Whining** tells us of the emotional state of the learner or his level of dependency.
  - **Rate of speech is slow, rapid or jerky.** The learner is sensitive about the issue the educator is raising or the topic has different emotional meanings for the learner. The educator can talk about what happened in the classroom. As the educator start to touch on his/her feelings he/she starts to talk rapidly or fast.
  - **Silence** can be a sign of reluctance to take part in the conversation or the learner can be preoccupied. He could also be sensitive to self-disclosure.

- **Responding skills**

Very often children lack the basic communication skills to describe their feelings when they are in distress. Instead of talking, they act them out or deny them by saying, "I don't care" or " It doesn't matter to me". It is also true that they are sometimes unable to recognize their own feelings.

Teachers can play a supportive role by decoding their words, actions and body language so they are connected to the learner's feelings and the initial event that caused the stress (Long & Morse, 1996: 289; Wood & Long, 1991: 51).

According to Wood & Long (1991: 58) decoding "is connecting what students are doing and saying to what they are feeling." The aim of decoding is to help the learner to change his behaviour that is driven by logical reasoning. This will help the learner to become self-regulated and self-directed learners.

Decoding has, as emphasized by Wood & Long (1991: 58) three purposes:

- To teach learners to recognize specific feelings that drive inappropriate behaviour
- To build learner's confidence that they do not have to become victims of their own bad feelings, because there are alternative behaviours that bring better feelings, and
- To convey that talking about feelings and anxieties may not be as awful as anticipated.

For the learner to gain insight in the above mentioned purpose of decoding, the teacher must show empathy and this requires of the teacher to respond sensitively and accurately to the learner's feelings and body language and experiences as if they were his own. Important is also to respond to what is implied and left unsaid (Wood & Long, 1991: 58; Cristiani, et al., 1986: 127). Empathy, according Cristiani (1986: 127) "is the ability to adopt the client's internal frame of reference so that the client's private world and meanings are accurately understood and clearly communicated back to her." This information will help the teacher, who must remain non-judgemental, to help the learner make the connection between the specific behaviour and the associated feelings. Wood & Long (1991: 520 call this the building of bridges between the learner's "private, developmental anxieties and their public behaviour". The teacher is facilitating a self-exploration process so that the learner can recognize feelings and connect them to their own behaviour and that of others and also what the consequences of his behaviour are

for himself and others. This process of constructing meaning is important to break the conflict cycle.

The importance of understanding the psychological world of a learner in distress cannot be emphasized more. The teacher must understand that anxiety, according to Wood & Long (1991: 52) is a "private, chronic reaction to unmet emotional needs and stress." Learners at risk live with insecurity, unpredictability, alienation, helplessness or failure.

Learners who had an unstable life or experienced a lot of unpleasantness in life are confronted with the same developmental stressors as other learners who had normal lives. The problem is that the negative experiences left such a scar that they are unable to handle a normal crisis in each of their developmental stages. If the crisis is not addressed immediately and correctly, it leads to unmet emotional needs which will result in social, emotional and behavioural failures (Wood & Long, 1991: 52).

Wood & Long (1991: 52) also explain that there are five general types of developmental anxieties "encompassing complex internal and intra-personal processes from birth through adolescence: abandonment, inadequacy, guilt, conflict and identity."
It is important for teachers to be able to identify the presence of developmental anxieties in their learners so that they can have a framework for decoding their behavioural responses to stress. Once the teacher has this information it will enable him or give him direction in drawing up an individual developmental plan (IDP). The IDP will specify intervention strategies that are needed to break the conflict cycle.

4.5 THE DOUBLE STRUGGLE: ADULTS ROLE IN FUELLING THE CRISIS

In the past it was acceptable for educators to punish learners and act in an authoritarian way. Currently it is expected of educators to be a positive role model for learners by modeling the behaviour they expect of learners. Educators are also regarded as professionals and, therefore, should act in a professional manner.

With the volatile situations currently experienced in our classrooms, educators find it difficult to always act in a professional manner when it comes to dealing with disruptive behaviour. In most cases educators experience negative feelings towards a disruptive learner and acts in an inappropriate way. When this happen, it is always the learner that is suffering or wrongly punished. Very often some staff members are aware of the incident and know that the staff member involve acted wrongly or inappropriately, but because of our past history where adults are always right, keep quiet even if it is at the expense of the learner's emotional well-being.

Long, Wood & Fecser (2001: 221) give the following reasons why educators can inadvertently fuel the crisis:

- They become caught in the learner's conflict cycle.
- They hold rigid and unrealistic expectations regarding normal developmental behaviour.
- They are caught in a bad mood.
- They are caught in prejudging a problem learner in a crisis.

- It is important that educators understand what the double struggle entails. When they understand the double struggle, they will not always regard the learner as the main problem in the crisis. It is, therefore, important for the educator to identify his/her own frustrations and barriers when a crisis occurs. The next step is to overcome these barriers ("win the double struggle") to enable him/her to make the connection with the learner so that the necessary support can be given.

4.6 UNDERSTANDING AND DEALING EFFECTIVELY WITH THE CONFLICT CYCLE

As described in detail in chapter two, the teacher must understand how the learner can be the reason that he/she mirror's the same feelings as the learner. By showing the same negative reactions, the situation or crisis is never defused, but kept alive. It is of the utmost importance that a teacher never shows counter-aggression, verbally or non-verbally, because it will intensify the learner's negative feelings that will lead to his/her self-fulfilling prophecy that adults cannot be trusted.

Long & Fecser (2000: 24) give the following guidelines on how teachers can break the conflict cycle and also how to turn the conflict cycle into a coping cycle.
To break the conflict cycle, teachers must remember that:

- A learner will always have conflict in his/her life. Conflict is, therefore, a natural part of one's life.
- Conflict is neither good nor bad, but a function of the learner's perception and thoughts.
- A learner who is in conflict is most of the time in denial and will not take responsibility for his behaviour. He/she will defend his actions, blame somebody else or rationalize himself out of the situation.
- Teachers who are not alert will mirror the behaviour of the learner, because a learner in crisis can create the same feelings in others. When the educator also reacts in an emotional way, they become part of the problem and can not think clearly about the crisis. They are then not in a position to ascertain what are the real issues and feelings behind the learner's behaviour.
- If a teacher mirrors the same behaviour as the learner or acts impulsively, the conflict escalates which creates a no-win situation.

To change the conflict cycle into a coping cycle, teachers must have the following knowledge. The conflict cycle:

- Helps us to become aware that a crisis is looming so that we can become alert of the fact that a learner can create his/her feelings in us.
- Enables us to accept and own our counter-aggressive feelings toward the learner.
- Enables us to gain personal insight in our own feelings by acknowledging the counter-aggressive feeling, but not engaging in counter-aggressive behaviour.
- Enables us to avoid "You Messages" which increase stress feelings.
- Helps the teacher to strategize better by using "I Messages" by expressing how they feel. This is important, because it helps the teacher to control his/her own feelings while managing the behaviour of the learner.
- Helps us to focus on the needs of the learner and what effect the unmet needs have on the self-esteem of the learner and not on what we are feeling.
- Enables us to decode a learner's behaviour into his/her feelings. Very often these learners act aggressively and defensively to avoid further pain.
- Enables us to help the learner to gain insight in his/her self-defeating behaviour, by helping him/her to determine how his/her behaviour (or action) are connected to his feelings and the stressful event. These learners are controlled by their feelings and do not think logically about a situation.
- Gives the teacher an idea what skills the learner needs to manage his stress, to cope, to get insight in the here and now, develop personal responsibility and self-worth.

The educator must understand the conflict cycle, because it enables them to put coping strategies in place when learners challenge their own beliefs and values during the supporting process. The conflict cycle is a tool for educators to support them to remain calm and to control their own behaviour when frustration levels for them are on the increase. When educators have mastered the latter, they develop the art of how to listen

to a learner in crisis, create a positive relationship with the learner and use the crisis as a learning opportunity.

4.7 SUMMARY

The relevant skills and techniques educators need to utilize during a crisis to support a leaner cannot be underestimated. These skills and techniques give structure to the support process and enhance the confidence of the educators. The skills and techniques mentioned can be used successfully to teach learners self-control and to defuse or prevent a crisis to escalate.

A major part, however, of an educationists' role is to be a significant other for the learners. This entails being a caring person by establishing a caring relationship in a caring environment where the learner is part of the learning and the educational process. To be part of the learning process enhances their own self-reliance, builds their capacity and increases their sense of hope. It is essential that educators provide learners with a sense of hope and belief in the future, because this forms part of the foundation of the partnership that should exist in the classroom. This proactive engagement by the educators and involvement of the learner should facilitate the mindset change of the learner and fosters self-directedness.

Educators must be conscious of the fact that the ability to establish trust and to create hope is a pre-requisite for teaching self-control skills. Failure to establish a trusting relationship or to understand the learner and his world will diminish the possibility that the learner could be effectively supported and educated to become resilient.

CHAPTER 5

STRATEGIES FOR EDUCATORS: EMPOWERING THE LEARNER

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter the researcher looked at skills the educator needs to support the learner effectively to change his/her behaviour. In this chapter the researcher will focus on skills learners need to apply self-control and to regulate his/her own behaviour to become a resilient and self-directed learner.

Although educators may claim that they have applied these strategies all these years, the research done by Long, as explained in chapter one, revealed that only 10% of educators participating in the research could teach appropriate social skills learners need to apply self-control. The researcher will attempt to draw upon current strategies or develop new strategies if needed that might support educators in their effort to teach learners the appropriate social skills. These strategies will be grouped according to the appropriate self-defeating behaviour. By structuring it in this way, the task of the educator to apply these strategies might be facilitated.

The emphasis of the LSCI is to enable the child to have control over his/her actions and to encourage responsibility and independence. To be able to achieve responsibility and independence educators must help the learner to understand his/her world and specific his contribution to his/her self-defeating behaviour. This process to show insight is called cognition.

Meadows and Cashan (1988 in Alban-Metcalfe, et al., 2001: 59) also focus our attention on meta-cognition which they regard as "the process by which we come to know what we know, to know what we understand and to know what we can do."

Our goal should, therefore, be to guide the learner to take a meta-cognitive perspective on him/herself so that they can be in a position to monitor and assess what they know about

their behaviour. They must be able to view from the 'outside" (Alban-Metcalfe, et al., 2001: 59) to analyze and evaluate the appropriateness or the effectiveness of their thinking processes and the effect of their behaviour on themselves and others. Ones the learner has developed a metacognitive perspective, they are able to monitor and thereby control their own behaviour. The long term goal is, therefore, to develop self-control.

Ebersöhn and Eloff (2003: 54) is also of the opinion that a simplistic behaviouristic learning model is not enough for establishing an answer to what/how a person think. The focus should be on affective and cognitive aspects when acquiring skills.

When using cognitive strategies to modify behaviour the emphasis is usually on the functioning of the thought processes and how it influences the behaviour or how to correct behaviour. Cognitive strategies can help the learner to eliminate destructive or flawed patterns of thinking and replace it with positive thoughts and feelings.

Ebersöhn and Eloff (2003: 54) who are in agreement of the above argument is of the opinion that the purpose of "cognitive regulation intervention techniques is to change thoughts, ideas, assumptions, self-communication, basic philosophies (and therefore cognitive structures) that people utilize for themselves, others, events and situations." To focus on thoughts alone will not help these learners. We should also support them to function independently and to deal in a creative way with the challenges of life.

The disruptive learner must develop self-awareness and insight to cope with demanding situations in a controlled way. By acquiring the necessary problem-solving strategies will increase their awareness of what effect their actions have, to use hindsight and foresight to predict the outcome of actions and thus develop their meta-cognitive competence (Alban-Metcalfe, et al., 2001: 59).

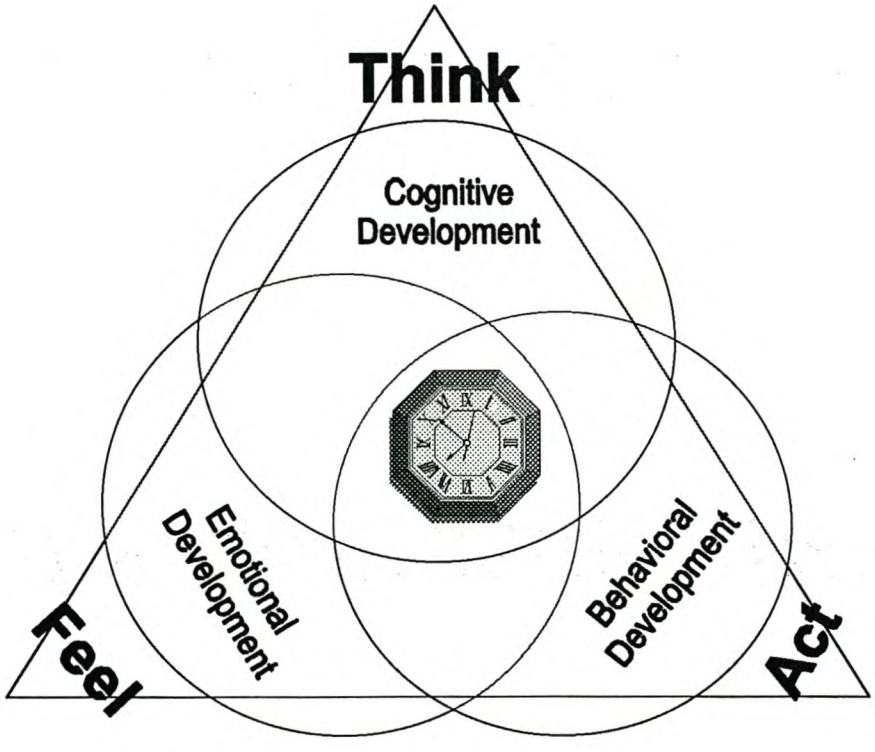
Children also need to think cognitively about their affective processes. This view is valued by McCown, Freedman, Jensen and Rideout (1998: 1X) and they stress the following:

- There is no thinking without feeling and no feeling without thinking.
- The more conscious one is of what one is experiencing, the more learning is possible.
- Experiencing oneself in a conscious manner – that is, gaining self-knowledge - is an integral part of learning.

Important for the learner is to become aware of how they perceive events, because your perceptions or experiences trigger emotions and how it affects your thoughts negatively or positively and what physical or emotional reaction it causes.

McCown et al. (1998: 5) illustrate in their Confluent Model, figure 5.1 the interrelationships between thoughts, feelings and acts in the following way:

Figure 5.1 Confluent Model



McCown et al. (1998: 5)

When supporting the learner, we must instill the idea that they can respond to painful, destructive feelings in a more positive way by looking at better choices. The LSCI provides a means to accomplish this goal. When using the LSCI the educators can give learners the opportunity to determine what happened before they lost control. In other words the learner can ascertain what affected them so badly that a crisis occurred. By determining what caused the crisis and how it occurred, they are in a better position to look at more constructive ways to manage their destructive feelings.

None of the strategies to teach the learner self-control, outlined in this chapter, will be effective if educators are not successful in guiding the learner to understand and to deal with the reason of their behaviour.

The strategies that the researcher will discuss to address the central issues will focus on the three processes of thoughts, feelings and behaviour.

It was mentioned in chapter two that disruptive learners are so overwhelmed by their emotions that they struggle to describe their feelings, check their anger, or control their impulsive behaviour. When Redl & Wineman (in Henley, 1997: 6) studied aggressive youth at Pioneer House in an attempt to determine why these youth are so out of control when there is a crisis, they discovered that, "rather than being a single-faceted characteristic that a student has or does not have, self-control is a general term for a series of specific social skills that youngsters develop as they mature and learn to cope with the hurdles of daily life." From the above argument by Redl and Wineman it is clear that learners with self-deprecating behaviours need to acquire specific skills that will enable them to overcome the barriers to self-control.

The research done by Redl and Wineman and the work done by Long and his colleagues on the LSCI Model forced us to look differently at the treatment of behaviour problems. The researcher is also of the opinion that the LSCI is a dynamic tool that could be applied successfully to teach learners the necessary skills to apply self-control in a crisis

situation. It is a tool that is responsive to both the inner-reality of the child and the incident.

The aim of this chapter will be to focus on strategies and guidelines for the educators to teach the learners to acquire the necessary skills to gain insight in their self-defeating behaviour, to anticipate consequences and to make the right choices.

As mentioned in chapter one, this research will only focus on the reclaiming stages of the following three patterns of self-defeating behaviour:

- Vulnerability to Peer Influence
- Anti-social Behaviour
- Impulsivity and Guilt

5.2. KEY ISSUES EDUCATORS NEED TO ADDRESS BEFORE DEALING WITH THE CENTRAL ISSUES

Before one attempts to address the central issues the learner exhibits, it is important to change a learner's attitude and also make him aware that for every action there is a consequence. It would, therefore, be helpful to address the following:

- Change the attitudes of the learner
- Teach them to anticipate consequences

5.2.1 Changing attitudes

The implementation of these strategies is a process and it is furthermore crucial that learners' attitudes should be addressed prior to teaching the necessary coping skills. Chances that the strategies will be successfully implemented will be very slim unless the learners' attitudes have changed.

A learner's behaviour, according to Phillips (1998: 31) is a direct result of their attitudes. The author regards the teaching of different attitudes as an important part of self-discipline.

Educators must be very cautious how they are going to approach the learners if they want to change their attitudes. This is critical, because these learners generally don't want to be told what to do. The educator, who is going to take this task upon him to change their attitudes, perceptions or teach them the necessary skills they need, will have to earn the respect of the learners first.

The best way to start, as discussed in chapter two, is to use the crisis as a learning opportunity. Educators should use the situation by teaching them how they can be successful even if their circumstances are not ideal for e.g. coming from a dysfunctional family must not deter them from having hope to succeed. The crisis situation can be used as an opportunity to change their attitudes and to teach responsibility. If educators are not going approach problem situations in this way, learners will, according to Phillips (1998: 30), perceive it as an attempt by the educator or the school to "straighten them out" and resistance will build up. As mentioned previously. These youth do not want to be moralized, lectured, or told what to do or what to think.

Phillips (1998: 33) suggests that educators can do "**The Colors Exercise**" with disruptive learners to change their attitudes. The aim is to teach learners that they do have control over their attitude.

1. Ask the learners to look around the room and memorize everything that is a certain dominant color for e.g. yellow. Colors associated with gangs should be avoided.
- They have 30 seconds to do it and then they must close their eyes.
- Ask them to call out every thing they remember that is blue. The idea is to call out a different dominant color than that was asked.

- They will find it hard to remember very many items and will complain that the educator cheated.
- Ask them why they think they couldn't remember any blue colored items. They may explain that they only focused on yellow colored items.

2. Explain to the learners that there is a certain part in the brain, the Reticular Activating System that acts as a Gatekeeper.
- Make them aware that there could be so many things that can draw one's attention, in other words there are many sensory perceptions.
- The Gatekeeper's job is to keep out any perceptions that are not directly linked to their goals or what they were looking for. In this case items that were yellow colored. If they try to remember yellow colored items, the Gatekeeper will block out any other color.

3. Make the activity now more personal.
- Explain that some people will always look for things that make them laugh. Others will look for reasons to blame others or to always look for faults. The educator should try to determine on what the learner focus and take it from there.

The goal is to help them understand that they can be in control of how they perceive things as negative or positive. They can be powerful and in control if they change their attitude. It must be stressed again that learners will elect not to apply the social skills learned at school in their daily lives if they do not change their attitude also.

5.2.2 Anticipation of consequences

In chapter three the notion of negative and logical consequences were discussed in detail. The LSCI place great emphasis on the fact that the learner must gain insight in his destructive behaviour by anticipating what the consequences will be for the actions he is taking. It is important to mention again that the LSCI is a multi-theoretical approach that

does not solely rely on the traditional discipline methods that involve punishment and rewards. With traditional punishment methods youngsters are punished when their behaviour is unacceptable to adults and rewarded when they comply to the demands of adults. LSCI is a verbal strategy that helps learners to gain insight, to acquire the skills to make the right choices and to accept and deal with the logical consequences of their choices. McWhirter et al. (1998: 154) regards logical consequences as the teaching of:

> *"responsibility, cooperation, respect for order and the rights of others, good judgement, and careful decision making, and to give them a sense of control and choice. The goal is not to force submission or compliance, nor is it to obtain retribution or revenge. Consequences are administered and experienced in an impersonal, matter-of-fact fashion, without moralizing, judgement or excessive emotional involvement."*

If learners acquire the skill to anticipate consequences he/she will feel more in control or independent that will lead to decrease in frustration and resentment that leads to disruptive behaviour.

The learner needs to develop new thinking patterns and different ways to approach people and events. They need to develop alternatives to aggression. One of the most important skills that they need to acquire is to take responsibility for their actions.

This requires of the learner to be able to manage consequences that will inevitably be part of negative behaviour.

To stress the importance of anticipating consequences, Jacobson & Raymer (1999: 46) is of the opinion that:

> *"Identifying causes and effects helps students understand the consequences of actions and events both through history and in their own lives. Understanding causal relationships is an important critical thinking skill*

that leads to a deeper understanding of subject matter and allows students to make connections between their learning and their own lives. Students who can recognize the results of actions or events are better able to make choices about their own behaviour."

Troubled youth lack this skill and will persist with disruptive behaviour despite unpleasant consequences. Because they cannot be objective, they fail to see that in any situation there is a cause and an affect. When confronted with negative consequences, troubled youngsters will blame educators for picking on them, blame their friends for being mean, or blame their parents for not caring or understanding them (Henley & Long, 1999: 228).

The following exercises can be practiced by learners to help them understand what the concept consequences entails:

Exercise: UNDERSTANDING CONSEQUENCES

Aim: To teach the concept 'consequence' to learners and what effect it can have on their lives.

The exercises are:

- Cause-and-Effect Contraption
- Cause-and-Effect Tree
- The River Flow Chart
- Focus on a Cycle

Jacobson & Raymer (1999: 46) suggest that before making learners aware of logical consequences they must understand that "a cause is an action or event that makes something else (the effect) happen."

1. Cause-and-Effect Contraption

The teaching of this skill can be started by reviewing simple cause and effect relationships.

Start the exercise by discussing the following scenarios:

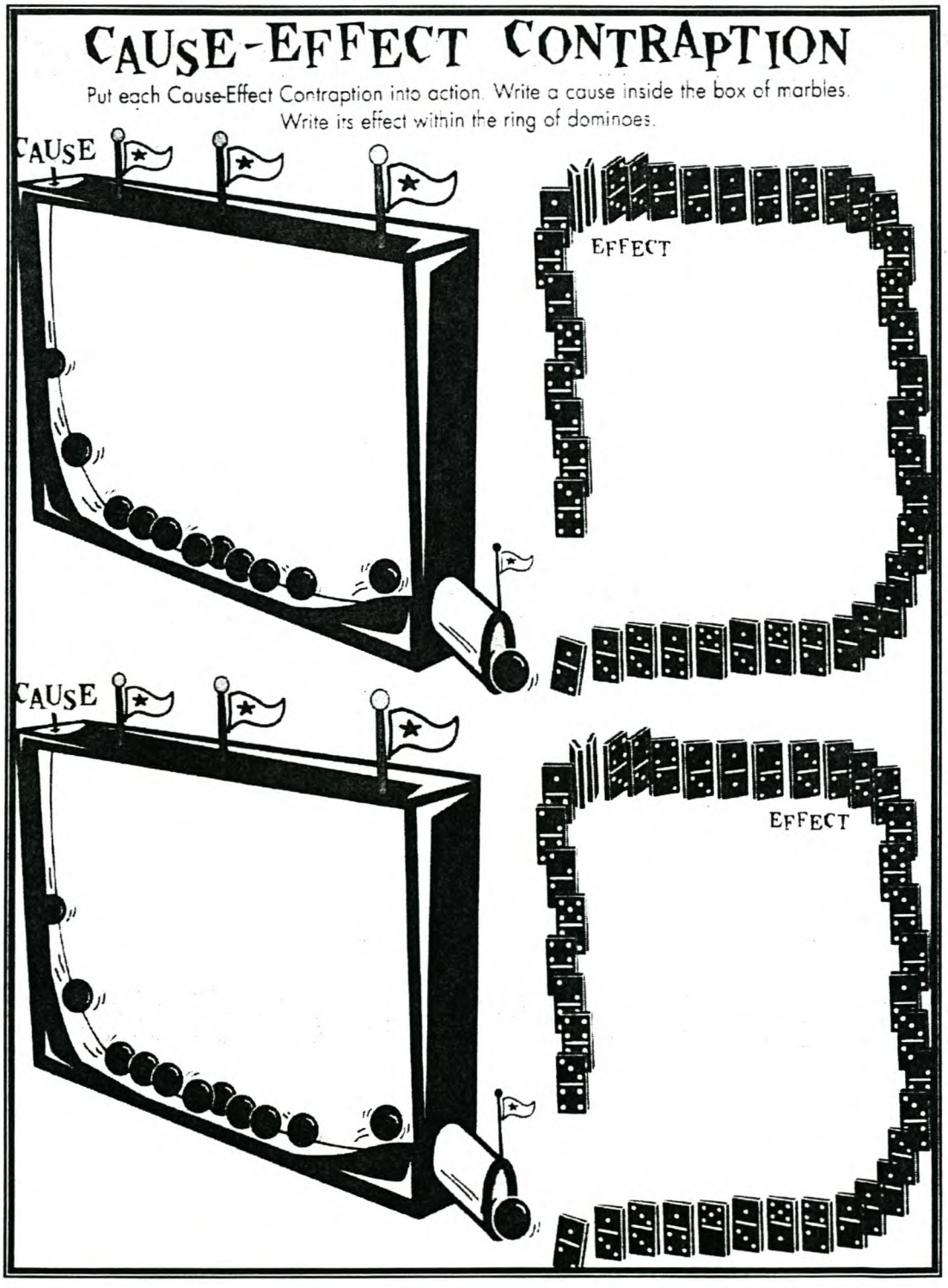
E.g. If I knock a glass of water over (cause), the water will spill (effect).

- What will happen if your dad fails to pay the electricity bill?
- What will happen if you rather go to a friend's house than completing your homework?
- It is a very hot day and you take your dog along to do some shopping. Because you are not allowed to take the dog into the mall, you have to leave the dog in the car. What do you think could happen to the dog?
- You are in a large game reserve. Every where there are signs warning you to stay within the fenced areas. Because you haven't seen any game, you decide to venture outside the fenced area to try to see some game. What could happen to you?

Learners can use their own experiences by completing Worksheet 5.1, **Cause-effect contraption** (Jacobson and Raymer, 1999: 13) to illustrate the cause-effect relationship. The educator should first explain to the learner that if the marbles are released from the box (cause) and it knocks against the dominoes, the dominoes would fall over (effect).

The learners can use this example to describe an event in their lives where their actions had an undesirable effect.

Worksheet 5.1 **CAUSE-EFFECT CONTRAPTION**

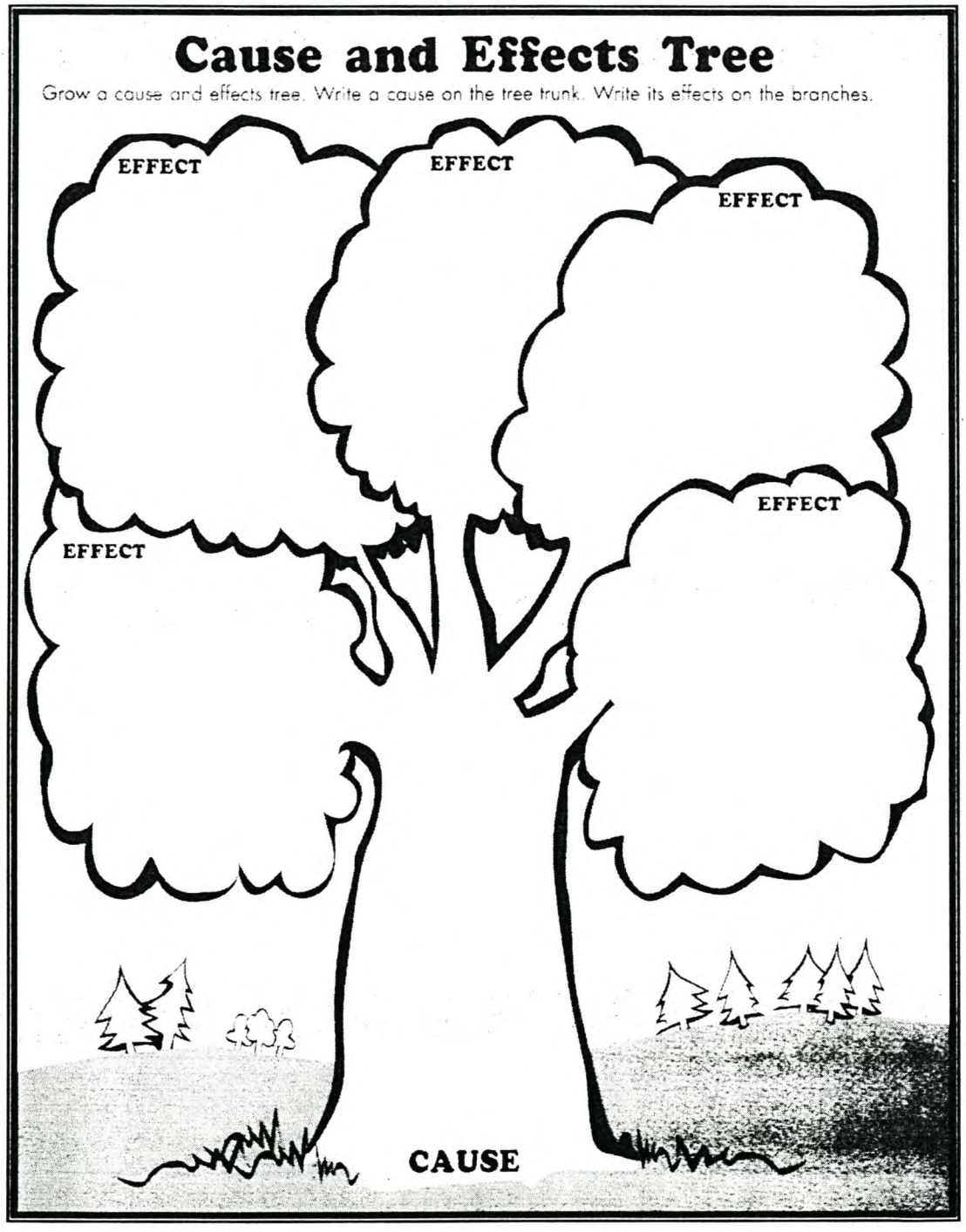


2. Cause-and-effect Tree

Learners can try to show multiple causes for one effect. This can be done by completing Worksheet 5.2, **The cause-and-effect tree** (Jacobson & Raymer, 1999: 47).

This is a good exercise to give to the impulsive learner who experiences extreme feelings of guilt. The learner can gain insight how his/her behaviour or action leads to the other and that it will result in different causes.

Worksheet 5.2 **CAUSE AND EFFECT TREE**



3. The river flow chart

Aim: To help learners gain insight in their behaviour by recalling events and help them to understand that every sequence of events have a logical order. Learners must be able to recognize causal relationships.

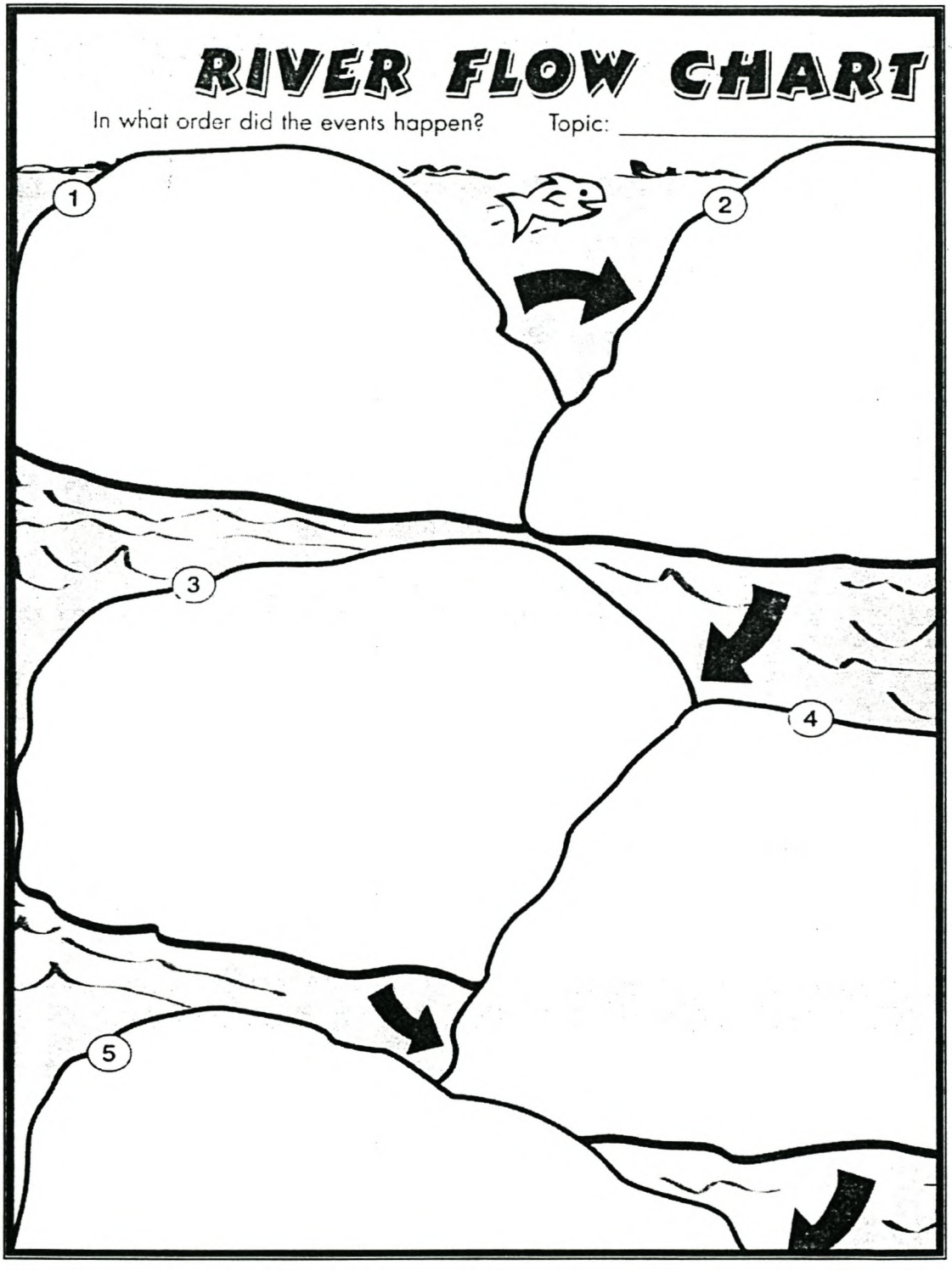
Use a flow chart to help learners arrange events in a logical order. The River Flow Chart as illustrated in Worksheet 5.3, **The river flow chart** (Jacobson & Raymer, 1999: 45) can be used to describe the stages of the event or the actions of a character.

The educator can guide the learners by asking questions such as:

- What was the first thing that happened?
- What happened next?

Learners can also start by working backwards, starting with the final outcome, and recording the events that led to the outcome. By using this strategy learners will be able to recognize causal relationships within a series of events.

Worksheet 5.3 **THE RIVER FLOW CHART**



4. Focus on a cycle

Aim: To identify causes and effects in their own lives and the impact it has on their lives.

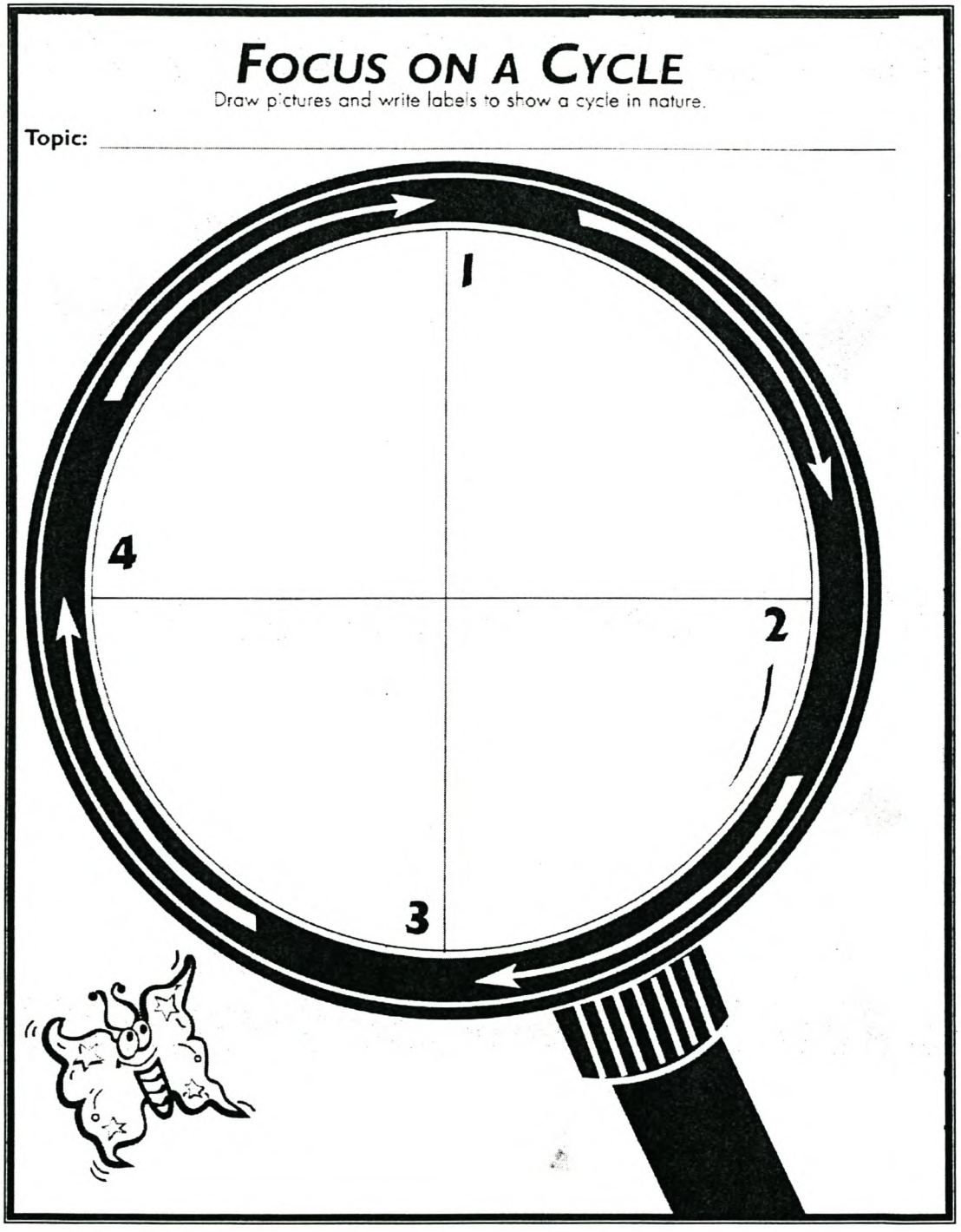
Learners can recall the events of a typical school day. They can look at general events such as:

- arriving at school,
- working in the classroom,
- what happened during break, etc.

Learners can use the drawing of a magnifying glass, as illustrated in Worksheet 5.4 **Focus on a cycle** (Jacobson & Raymer, 1999: 61) to illustrate how their school day was and what positive or negative consequences they experienced. The events can be role-played so that the learners can determine where things went wrong. Ideas to remedy the behaviour can be brainstormed.

Once learners understand what the concept consequences mean and how it influences their lives, they are ready to learn other skills to become self-directed learners.

Worksheet 5.4 **FOCUS ON A CYCLE**



5.3. UNDERSTANDING AND MANAGING OF CENTRAL ISSUES

LSCI does not only require of the learner to gain insight in his/her behaviour, but the educator should also gain insight in the understanding of the behaviour in order to manage it effectively. The researcher will now attempt to describe each central issue in detail and then discuss strategies and guidelines to manage each central issue.

5.3.1 Central Issue: Vulnerability to Peer Influence and Manipulation

5.3.1.1 Understanding the behaviour

- Learner's problem

There are two variation of this behaviour pattern. It will be called type I and type II (Long & Morse, 1996: 449).

Type I – False Friendship

The first one involves learners who are usually emotionally needy, isolated, neglected, or loners and develop a self-defeating friendship with and maintained only if the neglected learner is willing to act out the wishes of the exploitive learner. This pattern is called "false friendship", because the exploitive friend used the isolated learner to meet his needs or by acting out his friend's inappropriate wishes. Through his unwilling participation he falls in his friend's manipulation traps (Long and Morse, 1996: 449).

Type II – The set-up

The second variation involves an aggressive learner who is set up by a passive-aggressive learner who gets him/her 'out of control'. If the aggressive learner acts on the passive-aggressive learner's provocations, he gets into trouble by the teacher (Long and Morse, 1996:449).

- **Learner's view of the problem**

Type I focuses on the learner's need to belong and it is important for him to have friends even if he gets into trouble. They normally associate with gangs (Long and Morse, 1996: 449).

Type II focuses on how friends can influence their behaviour and thinking. He will not let a friend over-power him and will retaliate (Long and Morse, 1996: 450).

- **Manifestation of the behaviour**

Type I – False friendship

Long and Wood (1991: 261) explain that very often a learner will use a friend to gratify his/her own needs. It is sometimes very difficult for adults to understand why children remain friends with somebody although he/she knows it is detrimental to him- /herself. Sometimes the learner has no insight to realize how destructive such a relationship where he/she is being exploited, can be or he/she has no self-confidence to make new friends in fear of humiliation or teasing. Learners with severe emotional problems usually struggle to make friends. Their limited social skills are easily picked up and their behaviour and thoughts are manipulated or influenced. These learners who are manipulated by peer-led aggression or who do not always want to act out his/her friends inappropriate wishes risk being physically hurt, rejected, socially excluded or being put-down. Their desire to be accepted makes them vulnerable to the influence of a peer who will reach out to them under the guise that they are there for them. The need to belong and to have friends is so great that they will bear any consequences. They normally are under tremendous stress and experience feelings of loneliness, vulnerability, insecurity and anxiety from the threatening atmosphere that surrounds them. Children who are victims of such manipulative pitfalls usually have a low-self esteem (Sullivan, 2000: 2-3; Tattum, 1993:3; Long, et al., 1998: 18; Long & Fecser, 2000: 125; Long & Wood, 1991: 261-262).

The inference can be made that the exploitation is carried out by abusing of their power by expecting of their friend to act out the unacceptable behaviour, for example stealing. The exploitive friend always acts willfully, because he has no fear of recrimination. This argument is supported by Long & Fecser (2000: 125) who explain that "during any deviant act, the "instigator" manages to keep out of trouble, while the new friend, the "victim" carries out the behaviour and becomes the unlucky guy."

Although it appears that the manipulative friend has no fears, they do act cowardly by, and as Tattum (1993: 6) believes, manipulating the friend in secrecy.

Type II – The Set-up

Very often educators will find that one learner will manipulate or exploit the other learner. Normally the stronger learner is well aware of his peer's weak points and knows how to get him in trouble. The need for aggressive learners to show their strength and that they will not be messed with is so strong that it clouds their thoughts to such an extend that they cannot see how they are being socially exploited by a friend who has better skills than he/she has.

Wood & Long (1991: 262) call this "psychological invasion" by a friend who influences their thoughts and behaviour. They are also of the opinion that "an instigator usually knows what to say at the right time in the right way to seduce the victim to blow up and act crazy so that adults will control and punish this disturbing student." An example is when the class is busy with an exercise and is quiet. The more sophisticated learner will pretend to drop a paper in the bin, but in stead put it on the desk of the aggressive learner who he knows will react to what was written on the paper. The educator is unaware of the dynamics of the incident and punishes the learner.

Rigby (1996: 90) is also of the opinion that peer manipulation can occur, because of the fact that these learners had no sense of secure attachment in the family. It could be that they were exposed to negative examples of socializing, for example sexual-, physical –

and psychological abuse. The adult could have been the exploiter to gratify his/her own needs. The child remains in the adult relationship, because of his needs for care and support and his fear of abandonment. The learner is acting out the behaviour that he was exposed to and that was modeled to him.

These types of relationship problems as described above can be equated to Maslow's theory that people have certain basic needs that must be met before growth and development can be addressed.

According to Maslow (in Sullivan, 2000: 28) every person has a need for food, shelter and water which he calls physiological needs. We have an inherent desire for safety and to be protected from the world at large. Humans are social beings and have, therefore, a need to socialize and build relationships through social contact, love and friendships.

Sullivan explains (2000: 28) that our "higher order needs involve gaining the approval and love of others so that self-esteem and self-respect are formed and nurtured." When these needs are lacking anger and guilt can occur. We can, therefore, only be assertive and be able to develop our independency, self-esteem, identity and our full potential if the above needs are met.

Maslow's model gives us good insight in the possible affects the manipulation can have on a learner with limited social skills. A friendship is formed irrespective of the consequences, because he/she needs to have a sense of belonging to feel safe with someone. In this case it is a false sense of security. These children, because they cannot see how they are being used, are denied the opportunity to be part of genuine friendships, socializing or interactions. No growth can take place in such a relationship. It is a fact that people need to socialize, form bonds for the development of social intelligence and cognition.

5.3.1.2 Outcomes of the intervention

- To determine what the role and qualities of friends are and that they should not be exploitive. A friend is there to support and not to make life a nightmare or should not be working against his/her best interests.
- To identify a manipulative friend.
- To gain insight on how he/she allows the passive-aggressive learner to control him/her and the satisfaction the learner gets if he/she reacts negatively to his/her provocation (Long & Wood, 1991: 131 ; Long & Fecser, 2000: 122).
- To help learners to know themselves better.
- To obtain assertiveness skills.
- To identify their feelings and to know what trigger their anger.
- To show empathy.

5.3.1.3 Learner's new insight

The above outcomes should help the learner to gain the following insight:

Type I

A friend is there to support, help to solve problems and to make you feel good about yourself and not there to exploit. The learner must be able to know what type of behaviour people who are caring or genuine demonstrate (Long and Morse, 1996: 449).

Type II

The learner must gain insight on why it is so important to apply self-control by not reacting to the manipulation, because the trap is to get him in trouble. The instigator gets power and pleasure from what has been done while the victim gets nothing but trouble. He must try to ignore the tricks and feel good about himself if he was successful (Long & Wood, 1991: 263 ; Morse & Long, 1996: 449).

If the educator wants to reach the above goals and to enable the learner to get the necessary insight, certain skills are to be acquired. The educator needs to teach the learner the necessary skills to apply self-control and to demonstrate acceptable behaviour.

5.3.1.4 Approach to start the process

Type I – False Friendship

Morse & Long (1996: 449) suggest that both learners should be involved in the interview. The strategy will be to ask of the exploitive friend to model in front of the educator and the victim how he manipulated his friend to get personal gain.

Type II – set-up

If the issue is "to set a friend up" then it is best to see the aggressive learner alone. The focus is to demonstrate how the aggressive learner is in trouble when reacting to the other learner's manipulation (Morse & Long, 1996: 449).

5.3.1.5 Skills learners need

The following skills can be taught to learners who exhibit the central issue vulnerability to peer influence and manipulation.

- Friendship Skills
- Interpersonal Communication Skills
- Empathy Skills
- Anger Control Skills

Troubled and troubling children, who often get angry, can be helped in a variety of ways. Faupel et al. (1998: 38) stresses that "such help is at its most effective when directed at helping children to help themselves, so that they can regain the power to

have their needs appropriately met." The highest need according to Maslow is the need for self-actualization.

In order for the learner to control him-/herself and apply the necessary social skills to become resilient and self-directed, the educator needs to teach him/her the following skills:

5.3.1.5.1 Friendship skills

Friendship, according to Porter (2000: 258) is "a voluntarily, ongoing bond between individuals who have a mutual preference for each other and who share emotional warmth." Educators should encourage children to positively relate to each other as well as adults.

Porter (2000: 258) believes that when it comes to relating to peers, three issues are involved:

- Inclusion/exclusion
- Control: who within the group has a given status as a leader and who a follower, and
- Affection: whether the individuals in the group feel any lasting affection for each other. Typically children will feel more positive towards friends they can trust, count on and "whose behaviour is predictable". Because aggressive and impulsive peers lack the above, they are very unpopular.

- Benefits of friendships

Positive interactions with peers are important for:

- The development and practicing of social skills and mental health.
- Teach self-control.
- Give children experience at problem-solving.

- Provide practice at using language.
- Allow children to exchange skills and information that they do not readily acquire from adults.
- teach children reciprocity and cooperation.

On the emotional side, friendships supply:

- Reassurance.
- Promote a healthy self-esteem.
- Enhance children's confidence in stressful situations.
- Avoid loneliness.
- Provide fun and foster individuals' happiness

(Porter, 2000: 258-259).

When children reach their adolescence, young adults learn about intimacy, empathy, compassion, loyalty, collaboration, altruism and self-disclosure. Such intimacy is necessary to sustain a learner's drive to excel and perform and influence their thoughts on how they feel about their life (Asher & Parker, 1989 in Porter, 2000: 259).

It can also happen that children are exposed to negative peer interactions. This can have devastating effects on their development and how they should relate to people in general.

Educators can play an important role by teaching learners the necessary skills to avoid negative friendships, because according to Faupel et al. (1998: 19) how children get on with others is "increasingly recognized as a good predictor of how well they do at school, at work and ultimately for the quality of their physical and mental health." Angry and manipulative or exploitive friends can ruin friendships that are necessary for a satisfying and fulfilling life.

Certain skills can be taught to help learners to form positive peer relations and avoid being manipulated or being influenced. The teaching of skills can be broken down in tasks to make it easier for learners to grasp.

The summary of the following strategy "friendship skills" presents a clear understanding of how it can be taught to the learners:

A SUMMARY OF THE STRATEGIES FOR THE SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIOUR: PEER MANIPULATION

STRATEGY 1 : Friendship skills

Rationale: Porter (2000:258) is of the opinion that the forming of friendships give learners an opportunity to develop and practice social skills, teach self-control, give students experience at problem-solving, provide practice at using language, allow children to exchange skills and information that they do not readily acquire from adults." The building and maintaining of friendships are, therefore, very important to enhance positive interaction between peers, and youngsters and adults, and it helps children form their own identity. Positive social interaction at a young age addresses the need of belonging that is important to nurture the learner's self-esteem and self-respect. Friendships also teach learners important values like sharing, caring, trust, loyalty, etc. that is necessary to develop into responsible adults.

PAGE	TOPICS	AIM	ACTIVITIES	SUMMARY
167	Exercise 1: Value of friends	To teach learners the skill to make the right choices regarding friends.	Brainstorm Worksheet 5.5 section A	The following are discussed with learners: -What are friends? -What are friends for? -Qualities of a friend. -Importance of identifying with a friend.
173	Exercise 2: Positive and negative relationships.	To make learners aware of the benefits of positive relationships.	-Brainstorm -Read a short story or case study on friendships. -Design cover -Worksheet 5.5 Section B	-Characteristics of a positive relationship. -Characteristics of a negative relationship. -Reflect on own relationship with friend. -Ways to improve negative relationships.
174	Exercise 3: Quiz	To help learners to know	Worksheet 5.6, Quiz	Learners evaluate and rank themselves and each other to determine how they see

		themselves better and to see how well they get on with others.		themselves in the relationship. Discussion follows with the educator.
176	Exercise 4: -Ideal Relationships	To make learners aware of ideal friendships.	Brainstorm and discussions Complete worksheets 5.7 Friendship skills and 5.8 Progress chart	This strategy entails the following: -What makes someone a good friend. -Exploring feelings and how it affects yourself and others around you. -Identify traits of negative and positive friendships. -Evaluate own friendship. -Tips to make and keep good friends. -How to make a friend feel important. -Friendship Boosters and Friendship Busters. -Friendship Skills

The following are examples of exercises that can be done to teach learners to deal with peer manipulation:

- Exercise 1: The Value of friends
- Exercise 2: Positive and negative relationships
- Exercise 3: Quiz
- Exercise 4: ideal relationships

Exercise 1: The Value of Friends

AIM: To teach learners the skill to make the right choices regarding friends.

1.1 Both these learners should discuss in a group or with each other or with the educator the following:

- **What are friends?**

Csòti (2000: 16) explains that "a friend is someone with whom we share affection and regard (usually outside sexual and family bonds)." Children very often will reply that a friend is someone they love or like, respect and enjoy being with. Mutual trust and respect is expected in a friendship.

Here the educator can highlight the complexities of friendship and how complicated a relationship can be.

- **What are friends for?**

The educator should emphasize that a friend is not there to consciously exploit the other. A friend is there to share secrets and feelings, to support, for doing things together and for companionship. You must feel comfortable to share good and bad news with a friend. They are also there for celebrating and commiserating, which means that one must sometimes be able to put your friend's feelings before your own. A friend is

also someone that you go to for comfort, warmth, and to relax with. With a friend you can joke and tease without getting upset.

Wood & Long (1991: 262) see friendship as an "emotional bond creating interpersonal freedom and comfort." Children need friends for psychological support, especially if there is a lack of belonging at home. When children reach their adolescence, friendships form a major part of their lives. Educators should encourage socializing and the forming of positive friendships, because it plays a major part in developing the self-esteem.

- **What qualities do you think a friend should have?**

Learners can mention the following: loyalty, faithfulness, reliability, sympathy, trustworthiness, helpfulness, understanding, honesty, intimacy.

Educators can explain the terms to the group and ask them to give examples. The above qualities can also be role-played in the class.

- **Why is it important to be able to identify with a friend?**

Everybody has a sense of belonging and you can experience belonging only if you can identify with that person. You must have something in common with a friend, because they are there to share experiences. A friend is there for sharing and it will help if you have the same interest, other wise the other person will become bored with the conversation.

The above view is supported by Csòti (2000: 16) who believes that relationships in adolescents are generally build on having similar social power, interests, abilities and life experiences. These similarities help to form "a close-knit social network offering much support and understanding."

1.2 Learners complete Worksheet 5.5 **The value of friends** section A in a group. Section B must be completed when doing exercise 2 by the individual learner to

give the learner insight into the positive and negative qualities of their friends and how manipulative they can be.

Worksheet 5.5 **THE VALUE OF FRIENDS**

THE VALUE OF FRIENDS

SECTION A

1. What are friends?

1. _____ 6. _____
2. _____ 7. _____
3. _____ 8. _____
4. _____ 9. _____
5. _____ 10. _____

2. What are friends for?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

3. Qualities of a good friend.

1. _____ 6. _____
2. _____ 7. _____
3. _____ 8. _____
4. _____ 9. _____
5. _____ 10. _____

4. The importance of identifying with a friend.

_____

_____

_____

SECTION B

1. How do you see friendships?

_____

_____

2. Reflect critically on your friend.

2.1 Does he/she have the qualities as discussed by the group? YES NO

Give reasons to motivate your answer. Look at the section 'What are friends for' to support your answer.

_____

_____

_____

2.2 Unique qualities of my friend.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2.3 Characteristics that are disturbing about my friend.

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2.4 Why do you regard yourself as a good friend?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

2.5 Can you truly identify with your friend? Give reasons for your answer.

_____

_____

_____

2.6 Reflect on your relationship:

- Positive things you and your friend did together:

_____

_____

_____

- Negative things you and your friend did together:

_____

_____

_____

- How did you allow your friend in manipulating you to do the negative things?

_____

_____

- How did this experience make you feel?

_____

_____

- How did you react to this feeling?

_____

_____

- What were the consequences of your reactions?

_____

_____

_____

- **If you were the one convincing your friend to take part in negative activities, explain how you**
- Manipulated your friend to do the things he normally would not do.

_____

_____

_____

- How did this make you feel?

_____

_____

- What were your reactions to your feelings?

_____

_____

- What did you gain from this experience and what were the consequences?

_____

_____

_____

2.7 How can you prevent such a destructive relationship to continue?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Exercise 2: POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE RELATIONSHIPS

Aim: To make learners aware of the benefits of a positive peer relationship.

2.1 The group or the learner can brainstorm the following with the educator:

- What are the characteristics of a positive relationship?
- What are the characteristics of a negative relationship?
- Give examples of each of the above kind of relationships.

2.2 The educator reads with the learners through a short story or case study that deals with friendship.

The learners do the following activity:

- Assess what kind of friendship is manifesting in the story (positive or negative).
- What makes the friendship positive?
- What makes the friendship negative?
- If the relationship is negative, give ideas to improve the relationship and how to address the problems in the relationship.
- Try to determine how the characters are feeling and how it influences their behaviour towards each other.
- Look at the friendship with your friend. What similarities are there with your relationship with your friend and that of the characters in the story or the case study.
- What can you improve in your relationship?
- Imagine you wrote a short story on the relationship with your friend. Design a cover for your story to depict the relationship between you and your friend.

2.3 Learners complete section B of Worksheet 5.5 **The value of friends.**

Exercise: 3 QUIZ

Aim: To help learners to know themselves better and to see how well they get on with other people.

The following exercise is an adapted version developed by Keyte (1998 :4).

3.1 Each learner completes the quiz. Refer to Worksheet 5.6
It is expected of the learner to judge him/herself according to the quiz. Make it clear that there are no right or wrong answers. They should just write down what they honestly think.

Learners are given a sheet with statements. Each statement is ranked from 1 – 5. The learners must rank themselves from 1 – 5 that fits their response. 1 means you disagree completely; 5 mean you agree completely.

Worksheet 5.6 **QUIZ**

Each learner completes his/her own sheet.

STATEMENT					
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. I get on well with older friends.					
2. I get on well with younger friends.					
3. I get on well with friends my age.					
4. I have enough friends.					
5. I have enough friends of the opposite sex.					
6. I like being in a group or crowd.					
7. I like being on my own.					
8. I can make people feel at ease.					
9. People think I am easy to talk to.					
10. I can make people laugh.					
11. In my relationships with friends I feel: - free to express myself.					
12. - scared to differ from my friends.					
13. - my views are respected.					
14. I can share my problems with my friends.					
15. I always do what my friends are telling me to do.					
16. I am the one coming up with ideas to do things					
17. I have a good relationship with my family.					
18. How well does your friend fit in with your family?					
19. How trustworthy is your friend?					
20. I experience no jealousy in my friendship.					

Adapted from Keyte (1998: 4)

3.2 The exploitive friend completes a sheet about the victim and vice versa, for example if you think your friend is someone you can share your problems with, give him 5, etc.

3.3 Add up the score of your own sheet and then of your friends that you have completed. Return the latter to the friend and start discussing your evaluation with your teacher.

Evaluation:

80 – 100: You think you are smart and are handling relationships well.

50 – 79: You are not entirely happy in the relationship, but feel comfortable in your Relationship with your friends.

30 – 49: You are not happy with the way you handle people, or the way you think they perceive you. This could be that there may be a lack of self-confidence.

1 – 29: You feel unhappy in your relationships most of the times. Here the educator should encourage the learner to talk about his feelings. Things are probably not as bad as he/she perceives it. The educator should help to dentify a support system for the learner.

Exercise 4: IDEAL RELATIONSHIPS

Aim: To let learners think about what kind of friend they would have liked, what kind of support they would want or what they want out of a relationship.

4.1 Beàne (1999: 36) gives the following idea on how to stimulate thoughts on the above:

Ask learners the following: "What makes someone a good friend?"

He suggests the educator should write it down after discussions on the board under the heading "Friendship Boosters". The following examples are given:

- A good friend is always there for you.
- A good friend is someone who listens.
- A good friend is someone who likes you for who you are.
- A good friend is someone you can trust.
- A good friend is someone who trusts you.
- A good friend is honest.
- A good friend encourages you to do and be your best.
- A good friend is someone who understands you.
- A good friend is someone who shares with you.
- A good friend respects your property.
- A good friend respects your rights.
- A good friend is fair.
- A good friend is someone who sticks up for you.
- A good friend doesn't try to get you to do things you shouldn't do.

4.2 Learners can brainstorm the following:

- What kind of feelings do you experience when a friend is behaving in a positive manner towards you?
- How does it influence your behaviour towards others?
- How does it influence your self?
- How would you describe the consequences of your behaviour?

This task should tap into the exploitive friend's conscious and make him aware where he went wrong. The exploitive friend can be benignly confronted with the above qualities that a friend should have. The idea is to instill some guilt for using a friend

negatively. The victim can be taught how to judge a friend according to the above mentioned qualities. The victim can make an assessment what was lacking in the relationship.

Csòti (2000: 17) explains that children will normally mention the following what they regard as support and what is important for them in a relationship:

- **Intimacy** – a close and caring relationship that develops trust and a feeling of understanding (empathy) between friends.
- **Confidant** – we can tell a friend our problems and expect a sympathetic ear.
- **Confidence** – friends encourage us and tell us when we are doing the right thing which increases our feeling of self-worth. It helps us cope with difficult things.
- **Practical help** – help in everyday activities: help with homework or choosing the right clothes for an event.
- **Informational help** – finding things out for us, telling us things we need to know.
- **Being part of a social group (social interaction)** – being accepted by a group of friends and taking part in social activities such as outings, dancing, clubbing, swimming, squash, etc.

4.3 Friendship Busters

The following task is to help the victim assess what triggered his anger and why he was unhappy in the relationship. This can also be a way of challenging the exploitive friend so that he can admit his wrong doings and how he is going to improve on it or rectify it.

Beàne (1999: 35) suggests that the following question can be posed to the learners: "What kind of things can hurt a friendship or keep people from making friends?"
The educator can write their ideas down under the heading "friendship Busters".
Examples can be the following:

- Bragging
- Name calling
- Being bossy
- Teasing
- Making fun of others
- Being stuck-up
- Lying
- Spreading rumors
- Stealing
- Being rude
- Being sarcastic
- Ignoring people
- Making people feel left out
- Cheating
- Hitting
- Being mean
- Embarrassing people
- Trying to get people to do things they don't want to do or shouldn't do

Beàne (1999: 35) also gives the following tips for making and keeping friends:

- **Reach out.** Don't always wait for someone to make the first move. A simple hi and smile go a long way.
- **Get involved.** Join clubs that interest you. Take special classes inside or outside of school. Be a volunteer.
- **Let people know you are interested in them.** Don't just talk about yourself; ask questions about them.
- **Be a good listener.** Look at people while they are talking to you. Pay attention to what they say.

- **Risk telling people about yourself.** When it feels right, let them in on your interests, your talents, and what's important to you. But .....
- **Don't be a show-off.** Not everyone you meet will have your abilities and interests. (on the other hand, you shouldn't have to hide them – which you won't, once you made friends who like and appreciate you.)
- **Be honest.** Tell the truth about yourself, what you believe in, and what you stand for. When asked for your opinion, be sincere. Friends appreciate truthfulness in each other.
- **Be kind.** There are times being tactful is more important than being totally honest. The truth doesn't have to hurt.
- **Don't just use your friends as sound boards for your problems.** Include them in the good times, too.
- **Do your share of the work.** Any relationship takes effort. Don't always depend on your friends to make the plans and carry all the weight.
- **Be accepting.** Not all of your friends have to think and act like you do.
- **Learn to recognize the so-called friends you can do without.** Some people get so lonely that they put up with anyone – including friends who aren't really friends at all.

4.4 Learner can brainstorm the following:

- Feelings you experience when friends hurt you.
- How does it influence your behaviour towards others?
- How does it affect us? (Refer here to consequences)

4.5 Make someone feel important and valued.

- The group brainstorm ideas on how to make people feel important.
- They write it down on a chart and mark the three most important ones.
- Discuss the following with the learners:

- How do we feel about ourselves when we are made to feel important?
- How do you feel towards the person who made you feel important?
- Could your friend regard you as a true friend if you didn't value or appreciate him?
- How would you feel if you could make somebody feel important?

Here the educator can become more personal by referring to certain activities the learner engages in with his friend.

Example: I feel important when my friend allows me to ....

Look at positive and negative activities and discuss the consequences.

4.6 Friendship Skills

Both the victim and the exploitive friend can complete Worksheet 5.7 **Friendship skills**.

Worksheet 5.7 **FRIENDSHIP SKILLS**

Section A

1. What makes someone a good friend?

Friendship Boosters	Feelings I experience	Influence on my behaviour

2. What kind of things can damage a friendship or keep people from making friends

Friendship Busters	Feelings I experience	Influence on my behaviour

3. Tips to make and keep friends.

Section B

1. Ways to make people feel important:

Positive	Consequences	Negative	Consequences

2. Three most important friendship skills I have learned.

4.7: PROGRESS CHART adapted from McConnonn (1998: 4).

The educator can use Worksheet 5.8 **Progress chart,** to give learners feedback on their progress and to give further advice on areas that need improvement.

Worksheet 5.8 **PROGRESS CHART**

Name: _____ Date: _____

1. Strengths and Weaknesses

Strengths and Weaknesses	Yes	Uncertain	No
I try to understand how others think and feel and show my interest.			
I know why and how to show trust in a relationship.			
I make others feel important.			
I communicate with others by listening and sharing.			
I encourage others to talk about themselves and their interests.			
I know how to show support when a friend needs me.			
I have the ability to tell a friend when he is wrong.			
I have the skill to determine when my actions are influencing my friend negatively.			
I can assess my own skills in a friendship.			
I can look at ways of using these skills in my own friendships.			

2. Learner: The progress I have made.

_____

_____

_____

3. Teacher: report on the learner's progress.

_____

_____

_____

4. Friendship skills I will try to implement:

Week 1: _____

Week 2: _____

Week 3: _____

5. Skills I have implemented successfully:

Skill	Under what circumstances

6. What did I gain by implementing these skills?

_____

_____

_____

7. Joint agreement on progress that has been made:

_____

_____

_____

8. The following needs attention:

_____

_____

_____

9. Evaluate yourself on a scale of 1 – 5.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5

Needs more attention	reasonably successfully	highly successful

Adapted from McConnon (1989 :4).

5.3.1.5.2. Interpersonal Communication Skills

Good interpersonal communication skills are necessary to socialize in an acceptable way. The following summary illustrates how the educator can teach interpersonal skills to learners who get into trouble because of peer manipulation and influence.

STRATEGY 2: Interpersonal Communication Skills **Rationale:** Good interpersonal communication is a necessity to be able to respond with confidence. Interpersonal communication skills give people the skills to know when and how to modify their behaviour to function in a more acceptable way in society at large and to build resiliency. It plays a major role in the way people adjust psychologically in society and determines how they will develop psychologically (McWhirter, et al., 1998: 86). These skills are extremely important to build and maintain relationships.				
192	Exercise 1: Assertiveness	To teach learners strategies to respond in an assertive manner.	-Explain concept -Brainstorm Worksheet 5.9 Assertiveness skills	The educator explain the concept assertiveness **Role play and discuss the following**: -standing up for your rights. -expressing feelings -exercising personal rights -not denying the rights of others. **To be assertive learners learn the following strategies:** -I-Messages, ASSERT FORMULA, Steps to deliver an assertive behaviour.
203	Exercise 2: How assertive am I	To teach learners to demonstrate assertiveness.	-Role play -Worksheet 5.10 Reflection on my communication style.	-Learners practice the above strategies through role play to demonstrate their assertiveness skills.
206	Exercise 3: Other Communicatio n Styles	To make learners aware that people communicate in different ways and that it cannot always regarded as a positive way to	-Explain concepts -Case study -vignettes -videos	**The educator explains the following concepts:** -Assertiveness, aggression, passive-aggression, submissiveness, manipulation -Role play and discuss the above concepts -Learners identify different communication

		communicate.		styles and analyse it.
210	Exercise 4: My communication style	To make learners aware of their own communication style and to reflect upon it.	Complete worksheet 5.11 My Communication Style -Reflection	Learners reflect on the different communication styles and determine where they fit in. If they have in the past communicated in a negative way and become aware of it, they think of new ways to communicate with people. Learners are also challenged to think of positive ways to approach and communicate with people. They work closely with the educator to change their own communicating style if it was negative.

- Assertiveness

Much of our success lies in the ability to communicate with others in a meaningful way. One of the skills to be successful is to be assertive. Rosenthal & Quinn (1990: 128) regard assertiveness as "the ability to express your feelings to choose how you will act, to speak up for your rights when it is appropriate, to enhance self-esteem, to help yourself develop confidence, to disagree when you think it is important, and to carry out plans for modifying your own behaviour and asking others to change their offensive behaviour."

People very often respond to aggression in a passive way (flight) or in an aggressive way (fight). Learners should actually acquire the necessary verbal skills to address the problem in a proper way. This can be done by discussing the problem, or being argumentative in a constructive way, or through negotiation.

In support of the above argument Csòti (2000: 132) is also of the opinion that assertiveness skills can improve the way a learner communicates and handles conflict. These skills also help the learner to deal with general put-downs and can accept clear criticism without experiencing negative emotions that will lead to dysfunctional behaviour.

It is also true that many learners struggle to accept compliments or to give compliments to friends in a meaningful way. Assertiveness skills can address these shortcomings and help youth to resist peer pressure.

Csòti (2000: 132) is giving a whole list on how assertiveness can help individuals. Assertiveness skills help individuals to:

- Ensure their personal rights are not violated.
- Withstand unreasonable requests from others.
- Make reasonable requests of others.
- Deal effectively with unreasonable requests from others.
- Recognize the personal rights of others.
- Change the behaviour of others towards them.
- Avoid unnecessary aggressive conflicts.
- Confidently and openly communicate their position on any issue.

A learner who mastered the skill of assertiveness will apply himself in a more confident way. When there is confidence, the self-esteem will develop and grow.

Rosenthal and Quinn (1990: 128) believe that if a learner is assertive he/she should be able to demonstrate to:

- Declare/affirm any statement.
- Compel recognition of one's rights/position.
- Decide what we want and if it is fair, asking clearly for it.
- Expressing our feelings clearly and openly, including anger if it is justified.
- To give and receive compliments and criticisms.
- Not beating about the bush.
- Discuss, argue and negotiate.
- Be able to give honest opinions and reactions.

Confident people, therefore, experience assurance, show firmness, are sure of themselves, are well-founded, they are convinced, show boldness and self-reliance, are solid, honest, trustful, have courage, are certain of themselves, are unshakeable, steady and do not hesitate if they must do something.

Beàne (1999: 53) is also of the opinion that body language plays a major part in displaying assertiveness. He believes that children who slouch, mumble, fidget, can't look people in the eye, back-off easily, and appear frightened and worried are more likely to be victims than those whose body language expresses confidence and positive self-esteem.

One cannot only teach the children assertiveness skills. They must also learn to look assertive. Educators can teach learners to look assertive by role play, dramas, modeling, skits, open discussions and rehearsals.

Beàne (1999: 53) give the following as basics of assertive body language:

- Stand up straight. Stand with your feet slightly apart so you feel balanced and stable.
- Keep your head up. Keep your shoulders straight. Don't hunch.
- Look people in the eye. Not over their heads, not at the ground – right in the eye.
- Don't back off when you're talking to someone. Move closer – but not too close. Keep a comfortable distance between you.

The following tasks can be practiced with learners:

- Exercise 1: Assertiveness
- Exercise 2: How assertive am I
- Exercise 3: Other communication styles
- Exercise 4: My communication style

Exercise 1: ASSERTIVENESS

Aim: To teach learners strategies to respond in an assertive manner.

Schmitz and Hipp (1987: 78) suggests that educators should start by explaining how important it is to be assertive and that it is one of the most important of all life skills, because "it does something directly about the source of interpersonal stress. An assertive interpersonal style also leads to more honest, enjoyable, and long-lasting relationships." Assertiveness is one style of communication that can help the learners feel less like victims and more in control of their lives.

1.1 The educator can guide the learner by explaining the concepts in the following manner:

Assertive behaviour:

This is a positive way of approaching people, because people are able to describe their feelings and clearly state their needs without showing disrespect. The assertive person's criticism is always constructive. They have firm believes and know when to say no, protect themselves from put-downs and can deal with a situation when nobody in a group is agreeing with them. They appear relax and confident.

The above view is supported by Alberti and Emmons (in Schmitz & Hipp, 1987: 78) who believe that assertive behaviour "enables a person to act in his best interests, to stand up for him-or herself without undue anxiety, to express honest feelings comfortably, or to exercise personal rights without denying the rights of others."

- The group can brainstorm the following:

Describe what it means to:

- Act in the your best interests
- Stand up for yourself
- Express their feelings honestly
- Exercise your personal rights without denying the rights of others

Schmith & Hipp (1987: 79) give the following examples:

- **Acting in one's own best interests**

- Talking to a teacher when confused.
- When absent, asking a friend for the homework assignment.
- Training hard before a match.
- Deciding to join or not to join a society at school.
- Deciding to organize a school event.

- **Standing up for oneself**

- Saying no to uncomfortable social invitations (e.g., drinking beer, a party, or a ride with unknown people in a car).
- Defending a personal decision, action or belief.
- Responding to criticism.
- Explaining an answer to a (teacher's) question more thoroughly.

- **Expressing feelings**

- Honestly and respectfully disagreeing with a friend.
- Thanking a parent or a friend for his help.
- Telling someone you're afraid, worried or angry.
- Saying "You're great!" or "I like you!"

- **Exercising personal rights**

- Expressing a viewpoint.
- Confronting a teacher, parent or coach about a problem.
- Returning defecting merchandize.
- Asking people not to smoke in a no-smoking area.
- Asking for feedback or explanations from others.

- **Not denying the rights of others**

- Not calling other people names.
- Not threatening, bribing or manipulating other people.
- Not hurting other people (physically, emotionally).
- Not lying about people or events in order to gain control.
- Respecting each person's independent viewpoint, decisions, needs.

1.2 Learners complete Worksheet 5.9 **Assertiveness skills.**

Worksheet 5.9 **ASSERTIVENESS SKILLS**

1. Explain the following:

- Act in your best interest.

- Stand up for yourself.

- Express your feelings honestly

- Exercise your personal rights without denying the rights of others.

2. Give examples where people:

- Act in their best interests.

- Stand up for themselves.

- Express their feelings honestly.

- Exercise their personal rights without denying the rights of others.

3. **Think of a situation where you should have acted in the following way, but didn't:**

- **Act in your best interest.**

- How did you actually act?

- What was the consequence?

- **Stand up for yourself.**

- How did you actually act?

- What was the consequence?

- **Express your feelings honestly.**

- What did you do instead of expressing how you feel?

- What was the consequence?

- **Exercise your personal rights.**

- How did you compromise your rights?

- What was the consequence?

1.3 Another way to teach learners to be assertive is to teach them the **Assert Formula**, figure 5.2, as developed by Scmitz and Hipp (1987: 89).

Figure 5.2

THE ASSERT FORMULA

A stands for **Attention**. Before you can talk about and try to solve a problem you're having with someone else, you need to get his or her attention. *Example:* "Sean, I need to talk to you about something. Is now a good time?"

S stands for **Soon, Simple, and Short**. Speak up as soon as you realize that your rights have been violated. Look the person in the eye and keep your comments brief and to the point. *Example:* "It's about something that happened in the hall today."

S stands for **Specific Behaviour**. What did the person do to violate your rights? Focus on the behaviour, not the person. Be as specific as you can. *Example:* "I didn't like it when you pushed me against my locker, I dropped my books, and you kicked them across the hall."

E stands for **Effect on Me**. Share the feelings you experienced as a result of the person's behaviour. *Example:* "It was embarrassing, plus I was late for class. I had to wait for the hall to clear before I could pick up my books."

R stands for **Response**. Wait for a response from the other person. He or she might try to brush you off with "What's the big deal?" or "Don't be a baby" or "Can't you take a joke?" or "So what?" Don't let it bother you. At least it's a response. On the other hand, the person might apologize.

T stands for **Terms**. Suggest a solution to the problem. *Example:* "I want you to stop bothering me in the hall. If you don't, I'll report you to the teacher."

Tips: The ASSERT formula may feel strange and awkward at first. It isn't foolproof, and it won't always work. In some situations – for example, bullying that involves physical violence – it might make things worse. And some bullies feed on getting *any* kind of response, even an assertive response. If your being assertive seems to anger or provoke the bully, walk away or run away.

Schmitz and Hipp (1987: 89)

1.4 Learners do the exercise on "A vocabulary on feelings". This exercise will be discussed under empathy building skills.

Educators can make learners aware that one can only be assertive if one can identify one's feelings. This will help learners to know what feelings are influencing their thoughts and cause them to react in the way they do.

1.5 Benefits of I Messages

Another strategy to teach learners to be assertive in many different situations is to teach them the technique of I messages. I Messages can be described as follows (Beáne, 1999: 51; Centre for Conflict Resolution, 2000: 23):

- I Messages are simple, but a powerful and effective way to communicate our wants, needs and feelings in a non-threatening way. It helps us to state how we personally respond to situations in a special way.
- I Messages help learners to communicate assertively.
- I Messages can be effective when we are angry, irritated or upset.
- I Messages are about flow- not fight or flight. They help us to hold our ground without treating the other person as an opponent, but keep the connection line open
- They do not assign blame, because blaming can make the problem worse and puts the other person on the offensive.

Explain to the learners how an I Message can support them if it is structured according to the five steps as explained in figure 5.3 (Beáne, 1999: 52; Centre for Conflict Resolution, 2000: 23-24).

Give learners opportunities to practice I Messages.

Examples:

1. I feel frustrated when …
2. I feel unhappy when …
3. I feel … when …
4. It hurts me when …
5. I don't like it when …

Figure 5.3: **"I Messages"**

FIVE STEPS TO AN "I MESSAGE"

1 Always start with 'I" not "You". "I" puts the focus on your feelings, wants and needs. "You" puts the other person on the defensive.

"I" _____ .

2. The Feeling/Response: Clearly and simply say HOW you feel.

" I feel _____" Example: "I feel angry."

" I'm _____" Example: "I'm upset."

3. The Action: Clearly and simply say WHAT the other person did (or is doing) that made you feel that way.

"I feel _____ when you _____"

Example: "I feel angry when you call me names."

"I'm _____ because you _____"

Example: "I'm upset because you tripped me."

4. The Reason/Effect: Clearly and simply say WHY you feel the way you do.

"I feel _____ when you _____because_____"

Example: "I feel angry because you call me names. .I have a real name."

"I'm _____ because you _____ and _____"

Example: "I'm upset because you tripped me and I dropped my books all over the floor."

5. The Referred Outcome: Clearly and simply say what you want or need the other person to do.

"I want you to _____"

Example: "I feel angry when you call because I have a real name. I want you to start calling me by my real name.

"I need you to_____"

Example: "I'm upset you tripped me and dropped my books all over the floor. I need you to help me pick up my books."

Beane (1999: 52)

Educators should emphasize to learners that it is important to tell people what you feel, because people are not always aware what your feelings are about in a certain situation. This awareness may prompt people to change and become more positive towards you. Your respond should be in a positive away and not in an attacking way. Communication is very important, but equally important is how you communicate and the language you use, for e.g. it is better to say "I feel frustrated when..." instead of "You drive me mad when..." Educators must try to guide learners to verbalize their actual feelings rather than the thoughts and impulses (compare Faupel, et al., 1998: 26; Centre for Conflict Resolution, 2000: 24).

It will be very difficult for the learner to be objective if he/she feels they were hurt in the process, but an objective description to the other party is necessary, because emotive words or actions will fuel the situation. The challenge here is to describe the specific behaviour that is upsetting or underhand.

Learners must steer away from the blame frame and take responsibility for the way they respond. Communication about a problem helps us to stay on the right path and "I messages" can be a very valuable tool to enhance relationship building and dealing with problems.

1.5 Figure 5.4 shows an example of how to deliver an assertive message, developed by the World Health Organization (1994: 40). Learners can practice the following example:

Problem: Joccai and Mannu are good friends. Joccai has a part-time job after school and he has lent money to Mannu on previous occasions. Lately Joccai has noticed that Mannu is becoming slower to pay the money back. Joccai decides to discuss this matter with Mannu after school and to ask that Mannu pay the money back sooner.

Figure 5.4 **STEPS TO DELIVER AN ASSERTIVE MESSAGE**

Steps	Description	Words you might say	Messages
Explain your feelings and the problem	State how you feel about the behavior/problem. Describe the behavior/problem that violates your rights or disturbs you.	-I feel frustrated when… -I feel unhappy when… -I feel… when… -It hurts me when… -I don't like it when…	I feel as if I'm being used when I lend you money and don't get it back right away.
Make your request	State clearly what you would like to have happen.	-I would like it better if.. -I would like you to… -Could you please… -Please don't… -I wish you could…	I would like it better if when you borrow money you would give it back as soon as possible.
Ask how the other person feels about your request	Invite the other person to express his/her feelings or thoughts about your request.	-How do you feel about that? -Is that OK with you? -What do you think? -What are you thoughts on that? -Is that alright with you?	Is that OK with you?
Answer	The other person indicates his/her feelings or thoughts about the request	The other person responds.	Ya, I guess you're right. I'm not too good at getting money back right away, but I will return it sooner next time.
Accept with thanks	If the other person agrees with you request, saying "thanks" is a good way to end a discussion.	-Thanks -Great, I appreciate that. -I'm happy that's OK with you -Great	Thanks, for understanding. Let's go and listen to music.

World Health Organization (1994: 40)

Exercise 2 : HOW ASSERTIVE AM I

Aim: Teach learners how to demonstrate assertiveness.

2.1 Assign each learner a role and let them role play the following situations. Learner reply according to the steps explained in figure 5.4. Educators can add to the list. The following are only examples.

Situation 1

You are talking to a number of your friends. Most of them used drugs before and are teasing you about the fact that you have not. One of the groups hurts you by what they have said. You decide to make an assertive reply.

Situation 2

A person of the opposite sex has asked you to go to a party with him/her. You don't know anyone who is going, which makes you feel a little uncomfortable. As well, you have heard he/she has a bad reputation at school. You decide to be assertive and say no to him/her.

2.2 Learners can role play the following situations and respond in an assertive way.

- It is the physical education period. You are all standing in a queue to jump in the pool.
  Someone pushes you out of your place by moving in right in front of you.
  Recommended reply: Excuse me, you might not have noticed, but you've just taken my place.
- Your friend has taken credit for the homework or project that you have done.
  Recommended reply: Why did you let Miss X think you did it when you knew it was my work? I want you to tell her the truth next time you see her or ask the following: "What are you going to do about it?"

- Your friend's notebook is gone. He needs to study for a test. He demands that you steal somebody else's book for him.
  Recommended reply: I don't think it is fair to put somebody else in the same predicament as you are in now. I am not going to be used this time around.
- You are sitting in a group with your friends and having a conversation. Your friend is criticizing you in front of everybody.
  Recommended reply: I feel hurt when you criticize me in front of the others.
- Your friend has drugs on him. He wants it to use it with him.
  Recommended reply: I don't do drugs.

If the replies are soft, let the learner practice to say it louder and louder. The reply must be as loud as they can so that it can sound very convincing and they feel confident enough to do it on their own.

2.3 Learners complete Worksheet 5.10 **Reflection on my communication style**

Worksheet 5.10 **REFLECTION ON MY COMMUNICATION STYLE**

1. How did you feel when you could demonstrate how assertive you can be?

_____

_____

2. How did you feel when you struggled to be assertive?

_____

_____

3. What strategies did you implement to be more assertive?

_____

_____

_____

4. If you have changed your approach to people. How did you approach them previously?

_____

_____

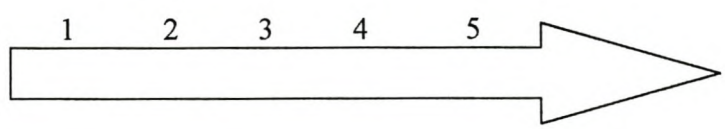
5. What made you realize that you should change your approach?

_____

_____

6. Evaluate yourself on a scale of 1-5 to determine your assertiveness.

1 not assertive enough and 5 highly assertive.



Exercise 3: OTHER COMMUNICATION STYLES

Aim: To make learners aware that people communicate in different ways and that it cannot always be regarded as a positive way to communicate.

The educator can now continue to explain the other concepts:
Aggressive behaviour punishes or makes people feel bad. People can be aggressive when they put you down, call you names or threaten you. Aggressive people shout and give uncomfortable body languages e. g. hands on the hips, etc are abusive, pushy and sarcastic. They tend to be bossy, tease someone, humiliates someone in public or gossip maliciously. They are very argumentative and need to win every argument or control other people's decisions and feelings. Their own needs are important and come first. Learners must grasp the fact that although aggressiveness makes you feel powerful, it is only on the surface. An aggressive response can cost you in terms of trust and respect. It is a false need that are met and no close relationships can be established (Csòti, 2000: 133 ; Schmitz & Hipp, 1987: 80).

Unassertive or submissive behaviour is according to Csòti (2000: 133) "timid" behaviour. The person is always acting apologetically although he did nothing wrong. He cannot stand up for him- or herself and people exploit them by forcing them to do things against their will.

Other people decide for him/her and are always controlling his/her feelings or actions. Because they are so insecure, they are not aware of their own strong feelings and opinions. They don't believe that feelings and thoughts also count. They try very hard to please people and will put their needs last. People with a passive response style are most of the time feeling hurt, anxious, angry, letdown and depressed, because they can't get their own needs met (Csòti, 2000: 133 ; Scmitz & Hipp, 1987: 80).

Passive-aggressive behaviour. People who respond passive-aggressively display elements of both aggressiveness and unassertiveness. It is difficult to pick up that they dominate or abuse the other person, but they seek revenge or control covertly. According to Scmitz & Hipp (1987: 80) they find it difficult to commit themselves, keep quiet when difficult decisions should be taken, but quietly sabotage behind the scenes. In a class situation they will bring the other learner in trouble without other people noticing it. Afterwards they derive much pleasure from the other person's downfall.

Schmitz and Hipp (1987: 81) is also of the opinion that passive-aggressive people are angry, but they do not know how to express their anger or disapproval. They also have a tendency to be the victim by making the following comments: "He attacked me", I just protected myself", "He must learn to control himself". Their methods to gain power are disrespectful and infringe the rights and feelings of others. Keyte (1988: 3) support the above view and regards these people as insecure and two-faced, who appear to put others up, but in fact put them down.

- Reasons why people act in a certain way (Schmitz & Hipp, 1987: 81-82)

Why are people passive or submissive? Because:

- They don't know how to be assertive.
- They fear the loss of approval and support of others.
- They want to avoid conflict and keep the peace.
- Feeling like a victim is all they know.
- They mistake assertiveness for aggressiveness.
- They mistake passivity for femininity.
- They are uncertain about their basic rights.
- They get a lot of rewards for being passive.
- They fear responsibility, accountability.

Why are people aggressive? Because:

- They don't know how to be assertive.
- They fear appearing weak or losing control of the situation.
- They need to dominate, win, get their way all the time.
- They don't know how to compromise, share or support others.
- They mistake aggressiveness for assertiveness.
- They mistake aggressiveness for "machismo".
- They're rewarded for being aggressive.
- They don't know how to be responsible for and be responsive to other people.

Why are people passive-aggressive? Because:

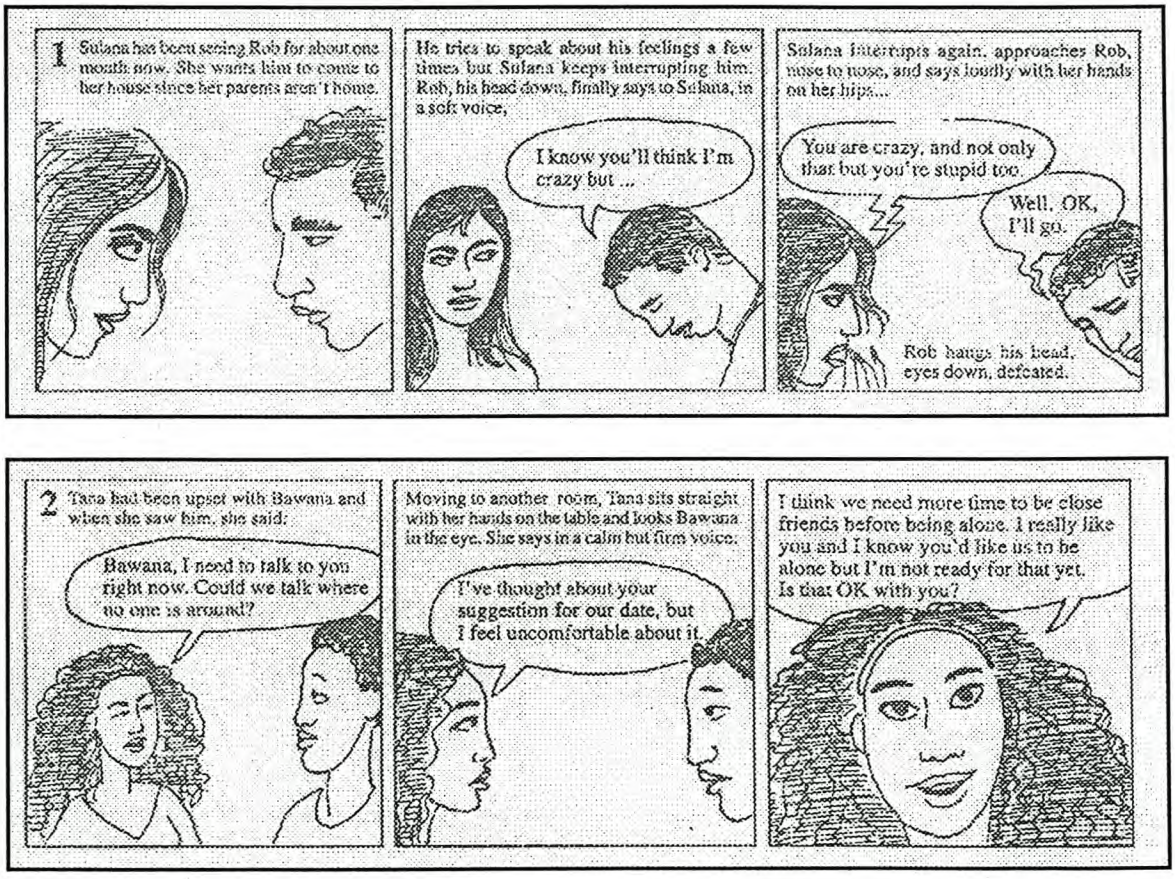
- They don't know how to be assertive.
- They are angry, but feel guilty about being angry.
- They've been punished for expressing their feelings openly.
- They're not sure their opinions, feelings, needs "count" as much as other people's.
- They resent people in power, but are afraid of having power (responsibility) themselves.
- They also mistake aggressiveness for assertiveness, and they can't allow themselves to act aggressively.

Scmitz and Hipp (1987: 83) also point out that there are advantages for being assertive. Assertiveness leads to:

- Greater self-confidence and self-respect.
- The potential for equality among friends, peers and family.
- A sense of control (sanity) over "crazy", difficult situations.
- A sense that objectives and goals can be reached.
- A sense of belonging to a group without sacrificing personal opinions and beliefs.
- A sense of responsibility for self and others.
- Less free floating anxiety.

1.1 Learners identify the different communication styles, adapted from World Health Organization (1992: 9).

Give learners a case study, vignettes or show a video where the characters will demonstrate the above mentioned responsive styles.



- Read the two case studies.
- Role play each case study.
- Identify the type of behaviour or communication style (assertive, aggressive, passive-aggressive, etc.)

- Explain how you identified the type of behaviour by describing:
- The content of what they have said.

- The way they spoke.
- Their body position and body language.
- What motivated the characters to act in a certain way?
- Explain what the logical consequences would be for their behaviour
- Learners brainstorm or discuss ideas on how a situation could have been handled differently or in a more assertive way if the response was not assertive.
- Learners role play the assertive response.

Guide them to look for the following:

Aggressiveness: Look out for people who are being pushy, forcing others to do things, glaring or staring at others, using emphatic hand movements, such as waving, pointing, clenching fists, frowning a lot, interrupting, using sharp or loud tone of voice. Aggressive people will also try to do things to get noticed for e.g. standing when others are sitting to show their authority. Manipulators may avoid direct eye contact and look out of the side of their eyes. Their movements are coy and flirtatious which could patronize others (Keyte, 1988: 3).

Unassertiveness: According to Keyte (1988: 3) these people "look up from a lower position, deliberately stay at a lower level than others, and have a head-down, slumped appearance." Learners can look out for people who fiddle with their hands, hair or clothes, and hesitate or waffle when they are speaking.

Exercise 4: MY COMMUNICATION STYLE

Aim: To make learners aware of their own communication style and to reflect upon it.

With this exercise the educator can empower the victim to be more assertive, but in the same time the passive-aggressive learner can be confronted in a benign way with his devious acts.

To become aware of how they act towards others, learners can complete Worksheet 5.11 **My communication style.**

Section B must be completed after the learner had time to implement and practice the new acquired skills.

Worksheet 5.11 **MY COMMUNICATION STYLE**

SECTION A

1. Explain what you understand under:

- **Assertive behaviour**

_____

_____

_____

- Think of a situation where you acted assertively.

_____

_____

_____

- Under what circumstances did it happen?

_____

_____

_____

- How did it make you feel?

_____

_____

- What was the reaction of the other person or persons?

_____

_____

- **Aggressive behaviour**

_____

_____

_____

- Think of a situation where you acted aggressively.

_____

_____

_____

- Under what circumstances did it happen?

_____

_____

_____

- How did it make you feel?

_____

_____

- What was the reaction of the other person or persons?

- Think of a reason why you acted aggressively?

- Could you have handled it differently? Explain how.

- **Unassertive or submissive behaviour**

- Think of a situation where you acted submisively.

- How did it make you feel?

- What was the outcome of the situation?

- How could you have handled the situation differently?

- Think of a reason why you couldn't be more assertive?

- **Passive-aggressive behaviour**

- Think of a situation where you deliberately acted passive-aggressively?

- Under what circumstances did it happen?

_____

_____

- How did the situation benefit you?

_____

_____

- How did it make you feel?

_____

_____

- What was your motive to act in the way you did?

_____

_____

- How could you have handled the situation differently so that all parties could have gained equally?

_____

_____

2. With what communication style do you feel most comfortable with?

_____

_____

3. Does it help you to deal with people in a more positive way? Give a reason for your answer.

_____

_____

_____

SECTION B

4. New ideas I have learned regarding communicating with people.

_____

_____

_____

5. Communication skills I will try to implement:

_____

_____

_____

6. Communication skills that I have implemented in:

Week	Skills and strategies	Evaluation: 1 (not so confident) to 5 (highly confident)
1		
2		
3		
4		

7. Positive spin-offs for me by using these skills:

8. Learner: The progress I have made.

9. Educator: report on learner's progress.

10. Joint agreement on progress made:

11. The following needs attention:

12. How will I address my short comings:

13. How will I celebrate my victory:

5.3.1.5.3 Empathy Skills

Empathy can be regarded as one of the key characteristics of successful learners. This view, according to Jones (1990, in Cotton, 2002: 1), is also supported by many educators who regard capable and successful learners as learners who are "knowledgeable, self-determined, strategic, but most important empathetic." In addition these learners have, according to this author:

- Knowledge, including critical and creative faculties.
- Motivation to learn and confidence about themselves as learners; and
- Tools and strategies for acquiring, evaluating and applying knowledge;
- Successful learners also have insight into motives, feelings and behaviour of others and the ability to communicate this understanding in a word empathy.

Researchers gave different definitions on what empathy is, but it all have the same focus in that it entails both cognitive processes and affective experiences. As Gallo (1989, in Cotton, 2002: 2) explains it is:

> *"an empathic response which contains both a cognitive and an affective dimension... the term empathy (is) used in at least two ways; to mean predominantly cognitive response, understanding how another feels, or to mean an affective communication with the other."*

Beáne (1999: 46) agrees with the above view and regards empathy as the "ability to identify with and understand another person's feelings, situation, motives and concerns – to put ourselves in someone else's place.

This definition makes us aware that we should, also understand the other person's internal frame of reference, but according to Haynes and Avery (in Cotton, 2002: 2) "accurately convey that understanding through an accepting response."

Cotton (2002: 5) feels strongly that learners should be educated and trained in the following:

- **Interpersonal perception and empathetic responding.**
  This is a cognitive approach where learners should learn:
- What empathy is.
- How it develops.
- How to recognize different emotive states in themselves and others, and
- How to respond to others positively.

- **To focus on one's own feelings by**
- Increasing the learner's ability to assume another's perspective.
- Making them aware of the different kind of feelings they can experience and what kind of feelings are associated with what kind of situations.

- **Focus on similarities between one self and others.**

Cotton (2002: 9) stress the above views on empathy by emphasizing that empathy is the "affective capacity to share another's feelings, and secondly it refers to the cognitive ability to understand another's feelings and perspectives." This understanding of another person's feelings can be communicated verbally and non-verbally.

This is one of the most important characteristics the exploitive and passive-aggressive learners should develop, because it will encourage them to be patient, caring and help them to build rapport. Empathy is the corner stone on which positive relationships with peers, family, friends or anybody we meet, are build on. Children can be rejected if there is a lack of empathy for others.

Very often people tend to empathize with people who they can identify with or with whom they have things in common. It is important that learners learn to show empathy towards people who are different from them regarding needs, experiences, points of view, life circumstances, beliefs, ethnic and cultural backgrounds, talents, abilities, accomplishments, etc. (Beáne, 1999: 46).

Educators should benignly confront the manipulative learner about their actions and support them by helping them to develop skills of anticipating how other people feel, how other people might feel or would feel in response to specific events and circumstances. Learners must be aware that emotions are expressed verbally and non-verbally.

The following summary will give a clear understanding of how this strategy can be taught to the learners:

STRATEGY 3: Empathy Skills
Rationale: Empathy skills are necessary to understand another person's feelings, situation, motives, concerns and perspective. Learners must not only show understanding, but should also be part of those feelings so that they can act in a way that does not offend the other person. If learners understand what it means to be empathetic, they will respond in such a way that will show the other person that they fully understand that person.

221	Exercise 1: Feelings vocabulary	To develop a vocabulary to express ones feelings.	-Discuss the feelings vocabulary chart, figure 5.5. -Grid: search feelings words	Educators hand each learner a chart so that they can learn words to describe or express their feelings.
224	Exercise 2: Identifying and expressing feelings.	To guide learners how to identify their feelings and to express them appropriately.	-Discussion -Role play events -video tape	Here it is about distinguishing between feelings and thoughts and to make learners aware how distorted thoughts can lead to negative feelings. Learners think of positive or negative remarks made to them and how they responded to those remarks. They must say how it affected their feelings.
225	Exercise 3: Expressing my feelings	To make learners aware of their own feelings and how people can respond differently to the same stimulus.	-Listen to a CD or cassette. -Discuss how the music affects your mood and your feelings. -Discuss the different instruments that are used and the effects it creates. -Look at lyrics of song -Design a cover for a CD. -Worksheet 5.12 Expressing my feelings	Learners become aware of how music can put you in a different mood but also how people react differently to different kinds of music. The mood and feelings created in them are expressed through art. Learners look at ways to make this exercise applicable to their daily lives.

229	Exercise 4: How sensitive am I	To encourage learners to be sensitive to other people's feelings, to build empathy by becoming aware of the feelings, needs and concerns of others and to be able to develop the necessary skills for reflecting these feelings.	-Role play of scenarios -Group discussion	Scenarios are given. Learners must identify how they would feel in a given situation. Learners use the feelings chart to help them to express themselves. By doing this learners become aware of how other people feel if they are in the same situation. **The following are also addressed:** -Reflecting on the difficulty of expressing feelings and how one's mood can change with sombre statements. -learn how to overcome negative feelings. -Is it fine to express feelings or not.
230	Exercise 5: Know how others feel	To identify feelings in others and to anticipate how they might react.	Role play and mime feelings -Learners guess or interpret feelings. -Use pictures that depict different feelings.	Learners learn how to identify feelings in another person by looking at their body language or non-verbal cues. The importance of knowing, or to be tuned into the other person's feelings are also discussed.

The educator can develop empathy skills by doing the following exercises:

- Exercise 1: Feelings vocabulary
- Exercise 2: Identifying and expressing feelings
- Exercise 3: Expressing my feelings
- Exercise 4: How sensitive am I
- Exercise 5: Know how others feel

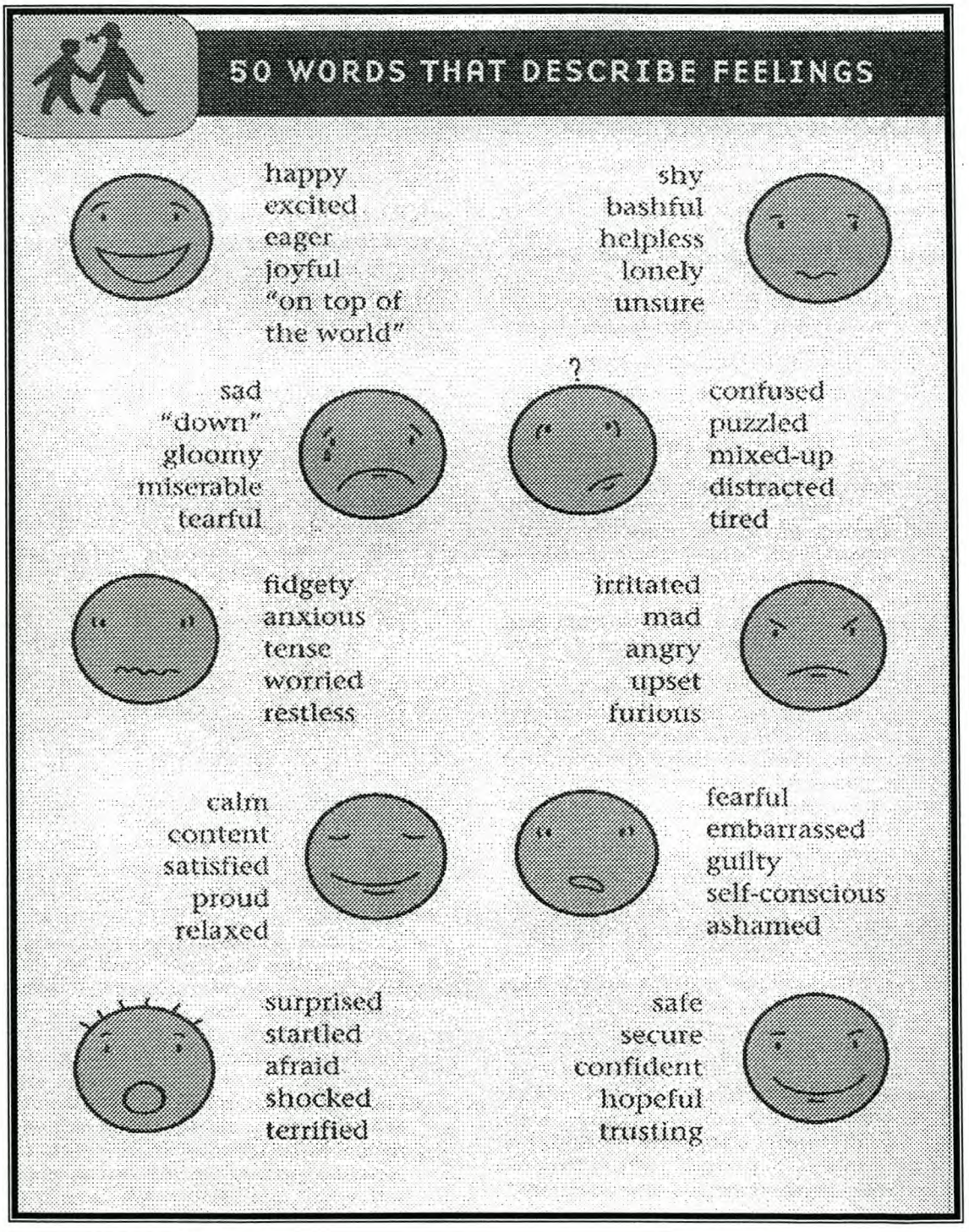
Exercise 1: FEELINGS VOCABULARY

Aim: To develop a vocabulary to express ones own feelings.

1.1 Ask learners how they would feel if they could get the day off in stead of going to school. They can also be asked how they would feel if somebody should steal their lunch box, pens, etc. Many of them will say that they will feel happy to get the day off or mad if something was stolen from them.

1.2 To help the learners to think of words to describe their feelings, show them a chart, Figure 5.5 **Feelings vocabulary** with pictures where different feelings are shown. Educators must try to expand their vocabulary to enable learners to describe the degrees of emotions they feel and they need to distinguish between feelings and thoughts. Very often it is the distorted thoughts that lead to negative feelings.

Figure 5.5 **FEELINGS VOCABULARY**



Beane (1999: 45)

1.3 Give the learners the following grid taken from McConnon & McConnon (1992: 11).

They must try to find the hidden words that describe feelings. For the younger children the words can be given. The older children can try to find the words without any support.

X	D	L	H	A	P	P	Y	E	G	W	O	R	R	I	E	D	P	A	D
C	Q	C	O	N	F	I	D	E	N	T	C	O	E	K	S	I	R	E	J
M	B	A	C	G	Y	D	X	X	E	T	H	V	J	E	A	L	O	U	S
K	U	B	O	R	E	D	F	C	L	Q	E	O	E	F	Z	K	U	A	C
F	L	S	H	Y	G	O	P	I	O	P	E	Z	C	G	R	Q	D	S	B
Z	N	C	P	H	Q	T	K	T	V	N	R	L	T	H	J	A	P	H	U
F	M	A	O	I	B	E	M	E	E	U	F	S	E	I	B	I	O	A	P
H	U	R	T	J	D	K	O	D	D	N	U	U	D	P	R	M	N	M	T
X	M	E	B	K	N	C	E	R	O	D	L	M	S	L	T	E	H	E	I
Q	R	D	W	Z	X	P	Y	V	Z	W	O	M	P	E	N	O	D	D	G
Y	V	A	P	B	R	I	G	H	T	Y	B	P	S	Q	D	A	L	A	H
N	B	R	N	E	R	V	O	U	S	E	R	P	P	U	P	Z	O	D	T
A	S	Z	S	T	U	P	I	D	Z	G	U	Z	E	M	Z	W	E	N	C
N	O	S	U	S	P	I	C	I	O	U	S	E	A	D	X	N	E	Y	P
X	E	P	M	Z	N	S	T	O	B	C	F	G	B	U	B	B	L	Y	B
D	I	S	L	I	K	E	D	A	M	V	B	GR	U	M	P	Y	Y	C	S

Words: grumpy, disliked, confident, happy, suspicious, worried, hurt, bored, shy, scared, rejected, jealous, proud, ashamed, cheerful, bright, nervous, uptight, stupid, loved, excited, bad, tired, confused, liked, bubbly, angry lonely, upset, good, depressed

Exercise 2: IDENTIFYING AND EXPRESSING FEELINGS

Aim: To guide learners how to identify their feelings and to express them appropriately.

The following task is adapted from Keyte (1988: 3).

2.1 Learners should think of a positive or negative remark that somebody made or said to him/her or about him /her. They can think of:

- Remarks teachers wrote on their reports or
- They can write down a few tricky situations they were in, or
- A situation that was hard to deal with that there friend put them in.
- They must try to identify how many were positive and how many were negative.
- They must think how they felt about those remarks and what their reactions were.

2.2 The educator and the learners can discuss the above, role play each situation, video record each role play and write it down under the following headings:

- Positive remark: Under what circumstances was it made.
  Feelings to remarks.
  Actions that follow.
  Logical consequences of their actions
- Negative remark: Under what circumstances was it made.
  Feelings to remark.
  Actions that follow
  Logical consequences of their actions

2.3 The learners can also discuss how other more assertive people would have handled the situation.

Exercise 3: EXPRESSING MY FEELINGS Adapted from Oliver (1988: 10-11)

Aim: To make learners aware of their own feelings and how people can respond differently to the same stimulus.

Educators should select in advanced different kinds of music on cassettes or CD's to play for the learners.

3.1 Explain to the group that they should listen very carefully to the music you are going to play to them. Their task would be to make a "portrait' of the music to express the mood it inspires in them. This can be done on the Worksheet 5.12 **Expressing my feelings.**

- Play a slow, calm thoughtful piece of music (melancholy, wistful, poignant, etc.) or a happy, triumphant piece (joyful, exciting, celebratory, etc.) or an amusing piece (hilarious, comical, droll, etc.) or a sinister piece (menacing, foreboding, eerie, etc.).
- After listening to the music several times, ask the learners to construct a picture (fairly quickly) from the colours, shapes or textures they feel are evoked by the music.
- Ask each learner to add words or phrases to their pictures to enhance the mood they want to express.

3.2 Put their pictures on display and discuss the following:

- Did learners have different ideas about the mood created or were they similar?

3.3 Do the same with a contrasting piece of music.

3.4 Discuss how composers have created certain effects in the music.

- Talk about the pace, volume and which instruments were used and how they were played e.g. bowing. plucking strings, etc.
- Analyze the lyrics of the songs to discover evocative words or phrases.

- Talk about how people use different pieces of music to create different atmospheres at a particular event such as weddings, funerals or parties.
- Discuss how music can affect the mood we are in and indeed how it can have a powerful affect on our feelings.

3.5 Learners reflect on what they have learned about music and their feelings and how they can use this knowledge in their every day life e.g. playing calming music to relax.

3.6 Learners can bring their own music to school. They can write down the music and its composer.

- They must describe their feelings and what it reminds them of. What is the lesson they have learned from that music.
- They can create a mood painting for their chosen piece of music.
- They can design an appropriate cover for it as if it was a single CD.
- This activity can be completed on Worksheet 5.12 **Expressing my feelings**.

Worksheet 5.12 **EXPRESSING MY FEELINGS**

Section A (completed when doing the group activity)

1. **My mood portrait.**

- How does the music affect your mood?

_____

_____

_____

- My mood portrait.

- My picture (show colours, shapes or textures you feel are evoked by the music. Add words and phrases to enhance the mood you want to express).

2. Mention 3 different or similar feelings that the group expressed.

_____

_____

_____

3. Express your ideas on what you have learned about this session.

_____

_____

Section B (completed by individual – refer to 1.6 of activity)

4. My own CD or cassette.

- Title of CD or cassette: _____.
- My favourite song on the CD or cassette: _____.
- What feelings does the song evoke in you?

_____

_____

- Lessons learned from this song

_____

_____

_____

- My mood painting

- My cover design

Exercise 4: HOW SENSITIVE AM I, adapted from Beáne (1999: 46).

Aim: To encourage learners to be sensitive to other people's feelings, to build empathy by becoming aware of the feelings, needs and concerns of others and to be able to develop the necessary skills for reflecting these feelings.

Ask the following questions that will draw the learner's attention away from him/herself towards the feelings, needs and concerns of others.

4.1 Learners can discuss the following in groups and jot down their feelings for each scenario. Give a feeling chart to each group to help them to express themselves.

How would you feel if . . .

- you were the new child at school?
- you were the most popular learner or the least popular learner?
- someone made fun of you or called you names?
- you came to school without any bread?
- your parents were divorced?
- someone picked on you all the time?
- you didn't have a home or a safe place to live?
- walking down the street was dangerous?
- you were the smallest child in the class?
- you were the brightest kid in the class?
- you couldn't speak English well?
- you had a hard time reading?
- you used a wheelchair?
- you wore glasses?
- you couldn't hear well or at all?
- you had an illness or felt sick most of the time?

4.2 Discuss the following with the group:

- How did the learners feel about doing this exercise?
- Did many have similar feelings or not?
- Did learners find it easy or difficult to get in touch with their feelings?
- Did your mood change suddenly when confronted with more somber statements?
- What kind of feelings is considered 'bad'?
- How do they hinder us in our daily life?
- What can be done about negative feelings?
- Is it OK to show and express feelings? Motivate.

Exercise 5: KNOW HOW OTHERS FEEL, taken from McConnon & McConnon (1992: 39).

Aim : To identify feelings in others and to anticipate how they might react.

5.1 Ask a willing learner to role play a feeling, e.g. sadness to the learners. The Learner must display a body position to convey this feeling by making use of his arms, legs and body posture.

- The learner or group must guess the feeling.
- When the feeling has been correctly guessed, ask the learner who guessed correctly to tell how he recognized the feeling, i.e. what were the non-verbal cues.
- Repeat the above with other emotions, i.e. anger, boredom, anxiety, excitement,
- depression, relaxed, etc.

5.2 Repeat the activity with two or more people in a group. They must mime the above scenes. The others must interpret what has happened and what the relationship is between the group or the two persons.

5.3 This activity, adapted from McConnon & McConnon (1992: 11,39), exposes learners to emotionally arousing stimuli, such as portrayal of misfortune, deprivation or distress.

Give learners pictures where people demonstrate different feelings. Learners must study the pictures and explain the following:

- Determine what feelings are expressed.
- How do the characters show their feelings.
- Why are these characters expressing these feelings?
- What influence does the picture have on you?
- If a negative feeling is expressed or displayed, discuss how an assertive person would have reacted.
- Why is it so important to be tuned into other peoples feelings?

5.3.1.5.4 Anger control skills

According to Deffenbacher (1993, in Sabatino, 1997: 167) anger is one of the main "underlying characteristics in clinical syndromes and personality patterns in youth displaying acting-out and aggressive behaviors." In the past different treatment approaches to anger have been implemented by directing anger to animated or inanimate structures, acting it out through psychodrama, or role playing and teaching children that anger should be addressed verbally and not behaviourally (Sabatino, 1997: 167). None of the above mentioned approaches will be successful if educators don't realize that the awareness and responsibility for the control rest with the child. The LSCI strategy emphasizes this strongly and believes that success in anger control lies in the notion that the child must reach insight and self-understanding.

To understand and manage anger is no easy task as it involves complex emotions and interaction of thought (cognitive), behaviour and feelings, which normally creates

certain somatic symptoms. On a behaviour level the child will express his/her anger by kicking, fighting, manipulating, etc. Cognitively, anger is experienced as beliefs, perceptions and interpretations of situations. Children must be made aware that thought control feelings and emotions and, therefore, Sabatino (1997: 167) is of the opinion that the solution to anger control lies in "self-directed thought control".

Anger is a strong emotional response. Physiologically, anger is experienced as a variety of responses in different individuals for example becoming red in the face, shaking or perspiring and it is very often described as "making my blood boil" or "seeing red". Anger precipitates, according to Sabatino (1997: 168) "an observable, aroused state that causes an increase in adrenaline". This "adrenaline rush" (Faupel, et al., 1998: 42; Sabatino, 1997: 168) bring about physiological changes such as lowered impulse control, increased strength and endurance, and influence concentration. Normally it is the action and the behaviour that has a damaging influence on the self and others, but anger can let people feel wrecked, or overwhelmed with guilt. It is essential that learners know what causes and influences that behaviour (Morganett, 1994: 127; Faupel, et al., 1998: 7).

It is important to look at what role anger plays in the lives of children with dysfunctional behaviour. According to Navaco (1975, in Sabatino, 1997: 168), anger plays six important roles in human functioning:

- It increases bahavioural responses; hence, when we are angry we talk louder and speak with a greater rate of output.
- It disrupts ongoing behaviour, interfering with attention and problem solving and increases impulsivity.
- It interferes with the communication of feelings and verbal expressions turn from positive to negative.
- It removes thoughts from threat, reducing anxiety and conflict (defensive action).

- It leads to aggressive responses (it thus needs an antagonist – something or someone to be the focus of the anger).
- It provides a limited means of coping (this is irrationally believed to be a stress reducer). Many children believe that anger aids them in taking control of their lives when threatened.

Children become very angry when they are frustrated, threatened, attacked in some way or when their needs have not been met. Their frustration could be something that another child did to them or when they do not get their way or the child couldn't have what he wants. This attack is often about being made to look small, devalued or being treated unjustly. Another child will again use his anger in such a calculated way to get what he/she wants (Faupel, et al., 1998: 15). This is especially true in the way the passive-aggressive learner gets the aggressive learner out of control (type II friendship) or how the exploitive learner make demands on the victim (type I friendship).

Faupel et al. (1998: 15) called the above instrumental anger, because it is used as a tool or instrument to achieve something. As mentioned above, this tactic is used by bullies or exploitive learners whose power forces the weaker learner into submission. Here anger could be the result of insecure attachment to parents or when the parenting model is punitive and teaches anger as opposed to reasoning (Sabatino, 1997: 168).

Anger can also be the result of feelings of powerlessness to change his/her situation. When everything seems hopeless, anger is sometimes used as a release of all the cropped up emotions. These cropped up emotions lead to dysfunctional behaviour through which uncontrolled anger is expressed. This uncontrolled anger, as Sabatino (1997: 168) believes, mask thought control and the belief in self that also have an effect on empowerment.

When the recurring expression of anger, according to Sabatino (1997: 167) becomes a "ritualistic habit, youth are denied the ability to mature in the development of values applicable to their lives and in learning decision-making".

Children should be made aware that getting angry is normal and can either be useful and positive or harmful and negative. Aristotle (in Faupel, et al., 1998: 3) had the view that:

> *"anyone can become angry – that is easy. But to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose, and in the right way – this is not easy."*

Educators should stress that everybody gets angry to some extent at some things, but that there is a difference between normal anger and problem anger. Morganet (1994: 127) also agrees with the above view and stresses that anger "is a healthy reaction that can motivate positive, constructive social interactions such as working out individual differences and learning to deal with conflict." Normal anger, therefore, let the child know there is a problem and he/she needs to do something about it. Normal anger solves problems, but problem anger creates more problems.

The challenge to the child who becomes explosive when he is angry is to learn how to manage his/her anger and emotions in an intelligent way. If children are unable to manage their anger appropriately, it can disrupt their lives significantly. It has a huge impact on relationships between peers and adults, especially on establishing meaningful relationships. Anger can be the result of underlying emotions such as feeling exploited, embarrassed, etc. that learners are unable to express. According to Faupel et al. (1998: 2) there is a view that to be "emotional literate means expressing a whole range of feelings." The problem with many disruptive learners is that they are unable to express their feelings, and can, therefore, be regarded as emotionally illiterate.

Faupel et al. (1998: 26) is also of the opinion that the person who appears to have difficulty identifying their own feelings and putting them into words would show different underlying "neurological patterns" to the person who appears "emotionally sensitive and volatile". As many of our emotional reactions happen out of awareness, those people who are self aware to a greater extent will find it easier to control their emotions as this gives more opportunities for monitoring their responses and considering whether or not they are helpful in the long term. A high level of self-awareness is therefore likely to be associated with healthy expression of emotions. The way we respond to stress, relationships, manipulation, etc. will be dependent on the internal factors such as feelings.

It is important that children learn appropriate ways to express their feelings, which respect the feelings and viewpoint of others. Angry feelings are frequently due to failure in communication, either because the learner has not been able to communicate in any other way apart from exploding into verbal or physical violence. Our task is to open up communication. The learner must acquire communication skills so that he/she has alternative ways of expressing and coping with strong emotions in more socially acceptable ways.

The summary that follows give an idea of how this strategy can be taught to learners who experience difficulty in controlling their anger.

STRATEGY 4: Anger Control Skills
Rationale: Anger control skills help learners to prevent problem situations, control negative emotional reactions, delay gratification and to resist problematic behaviour. Self-respect develops if we are able to control our anger. By applying anger control skills, learners learn how to negotiate and how to solve problems when dealing with conflict. It also enhances positive, constructive social interactions by working through individual differences that are vital in the adult world.

239	Exercise: 1 Identifying anger triggers and management of anger	To teach learners how to: -identify anger triggers -manage anger -develop self-awareness of how the body react to anger -understand that anger in itself is not bad, but the reaction to it may be bad.	-Drawing: When I feel happy/ When I feel angry. -video -discussion	Learners must draw themselves to show how they look when they are happy and how they look when they are angry. They must be able to show how their body reflects the mood they in for e.g. anger will portray a red face, clenched fists and teeth. The educator let the learners use metaphors to express their anger, for e.g. volcanoes. The educator tries to explain to the learners that just as the volcano erupts, they erupt or explode when they are angry.
240	Exercise 2: Firework Model	To help learners to become aware of what happens when they become angry and what makes them angry	-Firework Model -Worksheet 5.13 What makes me angry	The Firework Model that equates a cracker, is explained. The learners learn about perceptions of events, effects on thoughts and feelings and how they react to it. They identify what can trigger their anger, such as people, threats, events, etc. learners also learn how to avoid anger and what

				alternatives there are to anger.
244	Exercise 3: My thoughts	To demonstrate how thoughts influence actions.	Worksheet 5.14 What do I think	Learners become aware of how their thoughts can influence their actions. This activity helps them to think differently about the things that make them angry. They learn to think about their actions and how to apply self-control.
246	Exercise 4: Physical Reactions	To help learners to recognize their own physical reactions to anger	-Discussion -Worksheet 5.15 How do I feel	To learner are taught to know how their body react to anger. By knowing this they can implement strategies to counter these anger feelings
249	Exercise 5: Managing my anger	To help learners to find effective ways to manage their anger by giving them insight in their actions.	-Discussion -Worksheet 5.16 Anger Management	Learners explore different ways to manage anger and it attempts to teach learners constructive ways to deal with feelings associated with anger. They also learn how to reflect on their own management style.
254	Exercise 6: Self-recording and self-monitoring	To involve the learner in his own developmental plan.	-Learner draws his own anger thermometer or completes worksheet 5.17 Anger Thermometer	The learner takes responsibility for his behaviour by becoming part of the developmental plan. Ways to record and monitor is discussed.

256	Exercising 7: Developing a solution	To help learners to determine their strengths and weaknesses, ideas how to control themselves and to look at solutions.	Worksheet 5.18 Developing a solution	The learner learns to reflect on his management style by determining his strengths and weaknesses. The educator and the learner look at ways to improve his behaviour by determining the barriers and the obstacles. The learner evaluates how he is currently fairing. The educator helps the learner to draw up an individual plan to work on those areas that need attention.

The following exercises are examples that can be done to teach these learners anger control skills:

- Exercise 1: Identifying anger triggers and management of anger
- Exercise 2: Firework Model
- Exercise 3: My Thoughts
- Exercise 4: Physical Reactions
- Exercise 5: Managing my anger
- Exercise 6: Self-recording and self-monitoring
- Exercise 7: Developing a solution

Exercise1: IDENTIFYING OF ANGER TRIGGERS AND MANAGEMENT OF ANGER.

Aim: How to manage anger.

To identify anger triggers.

To develop a self-awareness of how the body react to anger.

To understand that anger in itself is not bad, but the reaction we have to it may have.

1.1 **When I feel happy/ When I feel angry** (Berenson, in Centre for Conflict Resolution).

Give learners a big sheet of paper that they must half. They must copy the words "happy" and "angry" on the two halves of the paper. Each learner must draw him-/herself when they are happy under the word happy. On the other side of the paper they must draw themselves when they are sad. Drawings may show reactions such as clenched teeth, tight fists red faces, etc.

1.2 This exercise is an example of how learners can become more aware of

themselves.

Show learners a video clip on volcanoes, a swarm of bees, a thunder storm, etc.

Select suitable music to accompany each scene.

- First show the mountain when it is calm. Initiate a discussion on what a person can do on the mountain for e.g. picnic, hiking, etc. After that discussion show the learners a volcano that is about to erupt. The learners must be able to hear all the rumbling sounds until it explodes and the lava is running down the mountain.
- Do the same with the discussion on bees. Emphasize how dangerous bees can be if they are disturbed. Make the learners attend on the sound that bees make when they are together.
- Another example could be thunder and lightning. Discuss the effect clear skies have on a person and how the sky changes when a storm is looming. The skies become overcast and thunder also makes a roaring sound. Thunder and lightning can also have devastating effect on people.
- Express how the different scenes influenced your mood and the different feelings you have experienced.
- Learners can express how they feel when they are angry through a drawing. They must use a metaphor e.g. a volcano to express their anger. In the drawing use the colours that depict your anger.

Exercise 2: THE FIREWORK MODEL. Faupel et al. (1998: 4).

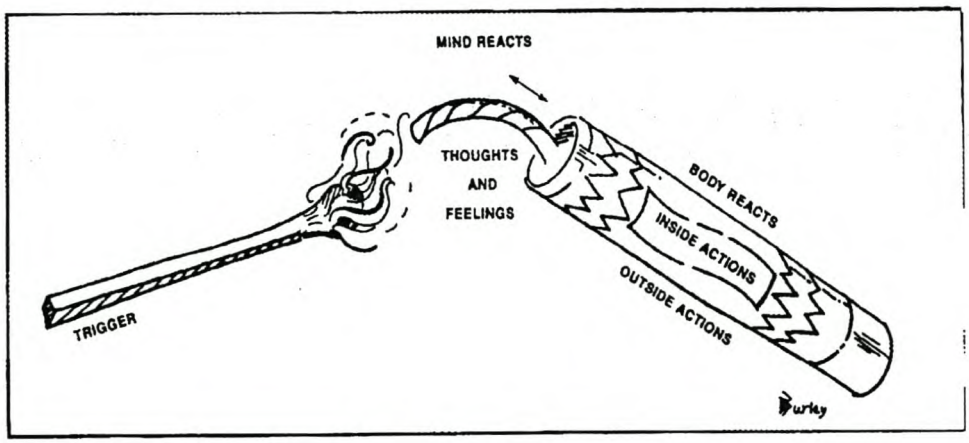
Aim: To help learners to become aware of what happens when they become angry and what makes them angry.

2.1 Another way of teaching learners to understand themselves and their emotions is to use the Firework Model of Faupel et al. (1998: 4) illustrated in figure 5.6, to explain how anger occurs. According to them it is a very useful model that can be used with

children of any age and adults. The Firework Model is a schematic way of showing learners what happen to them when they get angry.

The trigger is the match that ignites a person's fuse, in other words stimulating thoughts and feelings that lead to problem anger. This is the stage the learner perceives the incident or event as threatening. The fuse is the reaction the mind has (thoughts/feelings) to the threat or fear. The explosive cylinder is the body responding physiologically and may lead to anger expressed. When this happens, the learner is normally irrational and has no empathy for others.

Figure 5.6 **The Firework Model**



Faupel et al. (1998: 4)

2.2 Use this activity as a springboard to discuss the following questions.

- The learner must try to identify what phrases, words, ways of talking make him angry or are triggers for him.

Triggers are normally events that are regarded as a threat to the person. It could be:

- A person.
- Threats to the learner's self-identity or self –esteem.
- Or when his basic needs are not met.

To determine what makes them angry, learners can complete Worksheet 5.13, **What makes me angry** (Faupel, et al., 1998: 86).

Learners must realize that they are responsible for their own actions. It depends on them what their next move will be when identifying the triggers. They have the following options:

- Avoid the triggers
- Change the way they think about the triggers
- Reduce the level of arousal by using calming techniques

Worksheet 5.13 **WHAT MAKES ME ANGRY**

What makes me angry?

Stop the match being lit!

Here is a list of statements describing what makes some people angry. Tick the ones that are true for you and add some of your own that have not been listed.

- When people talk about me behind my back
- When I get my work wrong
- When other people get hurt
- When others won't play with me
- When I'm treated unfairly or blamed unfairly
- When I'm shouted at
- When people interfere with my games
- When people stop me doing what I want to
- When others get more attention than me
- When people call me names or tease me
- When I'm losing at football
- When people are rude about my family
- When people bully my friends
- When someone calls me a liar
- When someone pushes me
- When I get told off and others don't
- When things get broken
- When someone takes my things
- When there is a lot of a noise and I'm trying to concentrate
- When I have to do something I don't want to do
- When I'm told off in front of my friends
- When I get interrupted
- When people don't give me a chance
- When other people are angry
- When people don't listen to me
- When people don't understand me

Other things that make me angry:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____

Faupel et al. (1998: 8)

Exercise 3: MY THOUGHTS

Aim: To demonstrate how thoughts influence actions.

The following is an exercise to demonstrate to learners how their thoughts influence their actions. Learners must learn to think differently about those things that make them angry. The moment they start to think about their actions they are working on their impulsivity. They also have time to think of options to deal with the situations.

To make learners aware of their thoughts, they can complete Worksheet 5.14 **What do I think** Faupel et al. (1998: 90) .

Worksheet 5.14 **WHAT DO I THINK**

What do I think?

Lengthening the fuse?

Trigger ***Feelings***	***What I think*** ***Angry feelings***	***What I think*** ***No angry feelings***
Someone pushes you in the playground	(i) He wants to pick a fight. (ii) She wants to hurt me.	(i) He lost his balance (ii) Someone bullied her into it.
Your teacher doesn't listen when you are telling them why you are late	(i) They don't care about me. (ii) They don't believe me.	(i) She is busy trying to sort out another problem. (ii) I have picked a bad time. (iii) I'm not making myself clear.
Your best friend does not talk to you.		
Someone takes your best ruler off your desk.		
You get told off for forgetting your homework		
Someone shouts at you.		
A friend calls you a liar.		
You are not picked for the school football team.		
A group of children call you names as you walk past them.		

Think about some incidents that have made you angry recently and see if you can change what you think about them.

Faupel et al. (1998: 90)

Exercise 4: PHYSICAL REACTIONS

Aim: To help the learner to recognize his/her own physical reaction to anger.

4.1 The educator can explain this by referring how adrenaline is released into the body, how muscles become tense, blood pressure rises with rapid breathing, perspiring, etc. (Morganett, 1994: 127).

Physical reactions to anger as cited in Faupel et al. (1998: 44) can be:

- Physical agitation – pacing up and down, fiddling with equipment, twitching of
- Legs
- Fidgety small but quick movements
- Strange sensations in the stomach
- Heart beating faster
- Change in facial expression; tense and a tight face
- Change in eye contact
- Change in body posture
- Change in facial coloring (face becomes red or pale when very angry)
- Change in tone of voice
- Verbal challenges
- Rapid mood swings
- Over sensitivity to suggestions or criticisms
- Body starts to perspire (palms of hands may be wet)
- Start to shiver
- Neck feels stiff, tense muscles, especially legs and arms
- Quicker breathing
- Pupils often dilate

4.2 To make learners aware of their physical reactions to emotions, they can complete Worksheet 5.15 **How do I feel** Faupel et al. (1998: 92). They can refer back to the metaphors used in the previous activities.

Worksheet 5.15 **HOW DO I FEEL**

How do I feel?

Think about how you feel when you first start to get angry. Tick any of the following statements that apply to you.

I feel hot

My hands start to sweat

I find it difficult to stay still, I get fidgety

My mouth gets dry

My hands go into fists

My body feels tense

My heart races

I breathe more quickly

I feel panicky

Describe three other things that you have noticed about yourself when you are beginning to get angry:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Faupel et al. (1998: 92)

- **Positive Anger and Negative Anger**

The educator must guide the learner in understanding that he is responsible for his own actions and that there are consequences that will follow from the unacceptable behaviour. The pupil according to Faupel et al. (1998: 54) needs "to be alerted to this fact in a quiet and unemotional way". He can make the choice if he is going to allow his friend to get him in trouble by letting him get out of control.

The educator can use the analogy of a light switch. Explain that as soon the light switch is pressed, the light goes on. The friend presses the button and the light (his anger) goes on. The friend will walk away with the belief that he was successful in provoking the learner.

Exercise 5: MANAGING MY ANGER, adapted from McConnon and McConnon (1992: 32).

Aim: To help learners to find effective ways to manage their anger by giving them insight into their actions.

This exercise, refer to Worksheet 5.16 **Anger management,** is a good way of exploring how anger can be handled and it looks at constructive ways of dealing with feelings associated with anger.

This exercise is divided in three parts, namely section A, B and C.

Section A

The learner must first complete section A. The following can then be discussed:

- The usefulness of each way of managing anger.
- The consequences of these ways of behaving for e.g. if I hit or shout at the person, what is likely to happen?

The educator can facilitate the discussion by asking the following questions:

- What are considered helpful ways for handling anger?
- What does shouting, putting down, swearing or aggression achieve?
- What is the outcome of crying or running away?
- What happens when we dump our anger on other people, e.g. take it out on a friend?
- What happens if we bury the anger deep inside, or pretend the feeling doesn't exists?
- What are helpful ways of dealing with anger?
- Why does playing football, jogging, etc. help?
- What about talking your feelings of anger through with a friend or an adult?
- Which techniques work, e.g. counting to ten or talking to yourself.
- What about straight talking to the person making you angry? Is this always realistic?

Section B

Discuss the situation that got him out of control. The following can be discussed:

- Why did he/she get him angry?
- When did it happen?
- Does it normally happen that time of the day or during that period?
- Who is always involved or who was this person. Picture the person.
- How would you have liked to handle the situation?
- How could you have expressed your anger in an open and positive way?
- How did you manage your anger during that event?
- Was his way of managing the anger successful?
- How did his body respond to the anger?
- What feelings did he experience when he got angry?
- How did the other person react? What did he do?
- What strategies could you have implemented to reduce your anger?

- **Examples:**

- Take a deep breath or breathe slowly.
- Count backwards or count to ten.
- Relive a pleasant imagery to take the learner away from the unpleasant event.
- Reminders such as "Keep your cool" or "take it easy" phrases.
- Thinking of consequences: If I do _____ now when I'm angry, then _____ will probably happen.
- Self-instruction. This strategy will be discussed in detail later in the chapter.

Section C

The learner can reflect on his own anger management style.

The conflict situation can be role played to demonstrate different ways of managing anger and the outcomes of these.

Worksheet 5.16 **ANGER MANAGEMENT**

SECTION A

	A	B	
			Shout at the person
In column A			Cry
indicate how you			Run away / walking away from the incident
rate the usefulness			Count to ten
of these ways of			Take it out on my friend, teachers
handling anger.			Hit the person
			Slam the door
			Tell yourself to calm down
These help –			Play music loudly
			Talk to a friend – have a special person to be with
These don't help – x			Kick a ball – do some exercises
			Read a book
			Swear
Not so sure - ?			Go for a run – go for a run
			Talk openly to the person you are angry with
In column B, rate			Pretend you are not angry
your personal use of			Eat and eat
these ways of			Break something
handling anger			Smoke
			Write graffiti or using a catch phrase
			Breathe deeply and slowly
Yes, I do this = **Y**			Go somewhere on your own – special place
No, I never do this =			Lock yourself in the bathroom
N			Watch TV
I might do this = **M**			Sleep
			Imagine something pleasant or pretending to be somewhere else
			Think 'bad' things about the person you are angry with
			Write your feelings on paper and then tear it up
			Say nothing
			Manipulating people to get what you wnat
			Self-destruction
			Hide behind an imaginery shield
			Using the turtle neck technique and protecting yourself inside
			Relax clenched muscles

SECTION B

Useful strategies to reduce my anger

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

SECTION C

Reflecting on my own anger management style

1. When I am angry, two things I do which help are:
   - _____
   - _____
2. When I am angry, two things I do which don't help are:
   - _____
   - _____
3. Next time I shall try:
   - _____
   - _____

4. Rate your self on the 5 – point scale:

I get angry a lot.

1	2	3	4	5

I seldom get angry.

1	2	3	4	5

I manage my anger well.

1	2	3	4	5

I manage my anger badly.

1	2	3	4	5

Adapted from McConnon and McConnon (1992: 32)

Exercise 6: SELF-RECORDING AND SELF-MONITORING

Aim: To involve the learner in his own developmental plan through self-recording and self-monitoring

To make the crisis a learning opportunity it is essential that the learner is part of designing his developmental program. A way to involve the learner is to let the learner draw an anger thermometer or an anger log where his behaviour is recorded. An example of such a thermometer, adapted from Faupel et al. (1998: 60) is illustrated in Worksheet 5.17, **Anger thermometer.**

The anger thermometer can help the learner to:

- Identify their anger triggers.
- Look at ways to manage his anger.
- Look at ways to improve his management style or
- Describe suitable options to manage people, events things or places in the future that cause frustration and that leads to a crisis.
- Monitor his improvement.

Faupel and his colleagues also mentions that if the educator also keeps an anger log or thermometer, it is a way of helping the learner to reframe the problem and also to help the educator to move away from the notion that the problem or difficulty is within the child.

The learner can complete the Worksheet 5.17, **Anger themometer,** adapted from Faupel et al. (1998: 60), to help him to manage his anger.

Worksheet 5.17: **ANGER THEMOMETER**

Identify your anger triggers by keeping a diary or a log for a week or two.	WHAT MAKES ME ANGRY:	WHEN DID IT HAPPEN:	WHAT WAS MY REACTION:	EVENTS LEADING UP TO EVENT / CRISIS:	HOW WOULD YOU HANDLE IT DIFFERENTLY IF YOU EXPLODED
Exploding					
Boiling					
Warm					
Calm					
98.6					
(normal)					
Relaxed					
Cool					

Adapted from Faupel et al. (1998:60)

Exercise 7 DEVELOPING A SOLUTION

Aim: To help the learner to determine his strengths and weaknesses, ideas to improve and to look at solutions.

Worksheet 5.18, **Developing a solution** (Faupel, et al., 1998: 60), gives the learner an opportunity to reflect on his management of crisis situations. Through reflection he can build his self-confidence and self-esteem. To motivate the learner further rewards and self- reinforcement can be build in.

The learner can complete Worksheet 5.18 and discuss it with the educator.

Worksheet 5.18 **DEVELOPING A SOLUTION**

Developing a solution

Think about the last time you became angry. Answer the following questions about it.

What was the trigger?

_____

What did you think about the incident?

_____

What did you do try to keep calm?

_____

On a scale of 1 to 10, with 1 being the worst it could possibly be, and 10 being the best, circle *the number* that describes how you feel you reacted.

Reacted very badly									*Reacted very well*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

Assuming you have not circled 1, there must be something about how you behaved that you felt went well – list three of those things below.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

How could you improve your score by one next time (e.g. from 3 to 4, or 6 to 7) by building on the things that are already going well or by trying new things?

Three things I would do differently next time that would improve my score from ..... to ..... are:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

Don't forget you do not have to be perfect first time. Just make some changes that you think would be OK for you. If you find this difficult then talk it through with a trusted adult.

Obstacles

Sometimes when we are trying to make changes, things seem to get in the way and make it difficult for us. List below the things that you think will make it difficult for you to make changes:

_____
_____
_____

How could you avoid these obstacles?

_____
_____
_____

Who could help you with this?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

You have now

1. Scored your own behaviour on a scale of 1 to 10.
2. Identified what you are doing well already.
3. Decided what you would like to do to improve your score by one.
4. Thought about what might stop you from making those changed.
5. Identified how you could avoid the obstacles and who could help you with this.

You are now ready to put together your own action plan for improving your anger management.

Faupel et al. (1998:60)

5.3.2 CENTRAL ISSUE: IMPULSIVITY WITH GUILT

5.3.2.1 Understanding the behaviour

- **Learner's problem**

These learners struggle with the fact that one cannot always be perfect. When they make a genuine mistake, they cannot cope with their feelings of despair or hopelessness. This normally leads to loss of control.

They act out impulsively, but because they feel guilty about their failures or worthlessness become overwhelmed with intense feelings of guilt, shame, inadequacy, etc. To counter-act the above mentioned feelings, they will act in such a way that they make sure that they get punished. Learners who act impulsively, but feel guilty afterwards are normally those who were abused, neglected, abandoned or deprived in the past. They are the ones who struggle with a low self-esteem (Long & Morse, 1996: 446; Long & Wood, 1991: 221).

- **Learner's view of the problem**

The learner feels he/she is not in control and deserve to be punished. They don't believe in themselves and confidence is lacking (Long & Morse, 1991: 447; Long & Wood, 1991: 221).

According to Long & Wood (1991: 222) is it ironic that "students who have been physically or sexually abused often develop self-abusive response and make degrading comments such as "I'm no good". A common characteristic of them is that they also have difficulty in accepting any form of constructive criticism and has an explosive temper when they cannot meet their own high expectations (Long & Fecser, 2000: 109).

- **Manifestation of the problem**

One of the major causes of disciplinary problems in the classroom is impulsive behaviour. Many learners will push in lines without waiting, call out answers, take things from educators desk without asking, when the bell rings, run out of the classroom without waiting, etc. These learners do not think before they act or do not realize what devastating consequences their spontaneous actions may have.

Redl & Wineman (1951, in Henley, 1997: 59) described impulses as "the sum total of all urges, impulses, strivings, desires, needs, which seem to push in direction of gratification, goal attainment, or expression ..." Because of the need for instant gratification, they act impulsively without taking into account possible problems or think about consequences. Rather than stopping before acting, they will act quickly or as Redl & Wineman described it act on an urge that will meet their immediate goal without considering all the potential hazards or effects. Boucher (1999: 262) is of the opinion that the inability to think before acting is "an externalizing problem of under control".

Because of the shame and remorse they feel, they will be very hard on themselves. According to Long & Fecser (2000: 116) comments such as the following are frequently made:

"I'm no good"

"Wish I were dead"

"...can't do anything right"

"I'm a terrible person"

"...deserve to be treated like dirt"

To counteract these feelings of guilt and badness they try to punish themselves by making the situation worse. What worsen the problem is their low impulse control and irrational beliefs.

Unlike the learner with anti-social tendencies, these learners do have a value system in place. Because of their weak controls, according to Redl (1966: 45) "they cannot apply the values they have internalized. The values are there, but not in use. Unless they are reinforced and expanded, such values lie dormant and atrophy." Because there is a value system in tact, they will make promises never to act in such a way again and commit themselves to act within the prescribed boundaries.

From the above discussion it is clear that these learners have a limited view of events. Their focus is more on the present. They find it difficult to reflect on the past or to look at future actions to consider their possible impact. It is important that educators support these learners by helping them to begin by looking at events in a very limited time frame and then gradually extend this time frame. This step will eventually help the learner to look at this behaviour or impulsive actions in a much broader way.

5.3.2.2 Intervention

According to Long & Fecser (2000: 120) the focus of the intervention should be on the following:

- To manage the aggressive behaviour.
- To manage the self-punishing behaviour and their feeling of righteous indignation.
- To help them understand that for every action there is a consequence.
- To provide them with continuous, supporting statements to make them feel involved and focused.
- To help them define their problem and how it leads to another problem and to another problem in concrete terms.
- To support their self-control skills by avoiding any additional guilt"

- To benignly attack their irrational beliefs by saying that "a poor choice does not mean you are a rotten person."
- To help them identify and acknowledge that their pattern of behaviour during a crisis is characteristic of the way they manages most of their crises.
- To highlight their insights.
- To begin a pro-social skill program.
- To develop a behaviour modification program to reinforce any new behaviour.

Outcomes of the intervention

- To develop their self-esteem. The intervention must create awareness that they can apply self-control and that they are not so weak as they think they are. If this belief in their own capabilities and attributes are fostered in them, they will be more likely to control themselves and think before they react to stress in an impulsive and unacceptable manner (Long & Fecser, 2000: 105).
- To foster awareness that life is not easy and everyone can make a mistake. This does not mean that if one opted for the wrong choice or made an incorrect decision that one must feel worthless (Long & Fecser, 2000: 105).
- To help them to listen, to stay focus and to improve their self-control system (Long & Fecser, 2000: 105).
- To develop a positive self-concept.
- To develop a clear understanding of causal relationships and how it impacts on their behaviour. They often fail to notice connections between behaviour and consequences.
- To give them insight in their feelings.
- To help them to become self-directed learners by focusing on their positive qualities or values so that they can regulate their own behaviour. According to Long & Wood (1991: 227) "their values are so fragile or so deeply buried that they are not used to regulate their behaviour until after an incident."

5.3.2.3 Learner's new insight

The learner must understand that he/she has a choice and the capacity to control him/herself under tempting situations or when under group pressure. The learner will begin to understand that to make a mistake is okay, and it does not mean that one is a bad person when making a mistake. He/She is in a position to acquire the skills to apply self-control (Long & Fecser, 2000: 105).

5.3.2.4 Managing the behaviour

Impulsivity is challenging to manage, as the learner's urge to act is sudden and strong. As mentioned previously, the learner is often not aware of his/her impulsive behaviour nor of the consequences of their actions. They are surprised by their own behaviour and do not intend to act out. What is pleasing, though, is that they are able to regulate their behaviour with the proper intervention, support and behaviour modification techniques.

As mentioned earlier on, these learners are overwhelmed with guilt and remorse. The goal would be to manage the learner's guilt and destructive behaviour. It is, therefore, important that educators must not make comments or statements that will make them feel more guilty or inadequate. This will create more problems and enforce the cognitive traps like the irrational beliefs, destructive emotional reasoning and all or nothing thinking of themselves they already have (Long & Fecser, 2000: 106). Guilt-inducing statements that should be avoided are "I'm shocked by what you did", "I'm surprised that anyone like you would do such a thing", Your parents will be disappointed when they hear about your behaviour" (Long and Wilder, 1993: 36).

Long & Wood (1991: 224) is of the opinion that reinforcing negative behaviour can be avoided if the educators base their responses on:

- A learner's level of development about who should take responsibility for control of behaviour,
- The type of developmental anxiety within which the learner is struggling and
- The general level of values that the learner currently uses and
- The possibility to challenge the learner to the next level.

Aggressive behaviour is the result of their inability to handle guilt. The educator must strengthen the learner's self-control skills by looking beyond the aggression or acting out behaviour and focus on their positive attributes, strengths and affirm good behaviour, especially if control was shown in certain tempting situations. When reflecting on their positive qualities their irrational beliefs should be attacked simultaneously (Long & Wood, 1991: 223; Long & Fecser, 2000: 105).

Anthony Werner (in Long & Wood, 1991: 223) agrees with the above argument and emphasizes that the educator should be cautious when supporting an impulsive learner. Educators must help the learner gain insight in his positive qualities. The second phase of the LSCI, the timeline, is very helpful to help the learner focus on the detail where positive qualities were demonstrated. Highlight, no matter how insignificant the self-control skills he/she applied.

Decoding skills, the interpretation of meanings behind the impulsive behaviour and affirming skills are very important for this central issue, because the learner must be guided to gain insight into why he/she is showing unacceptable behaviour when they know that people find it appalling. The focus should therefore, be on good values they posses and how to demonstrate it in the right situations and at the right time. The reward for the educator is to change the learner's characteristic pattern of expecting additional punishment and deprecation to experiences of new feelings of adequacy, self-control and responsibility.

One of the strategies to implement will be then to work on their perception of themselves, because their self-concept is self-defeating. Any discussions of normal ideas will cause them to feel uncomfortable. They frequently act out rather than engage in fruitful discussions about their behaviour.

5.3.2.5 Skills learners need

- Enhancing the Self-esteem
- Dealing with Irrational Thinking
- Self-management Skills

5.3.2.5.1 Enhancing the self-esteem

One of the major problems of the impulsive learner, as mentioned previously, is their low self-esteem. They are capable of distinguishing between right or wrong, but because of low-impulse control cannot control their urge to act upon an object. They perceive themselves as bad and a worthless person when realizing the impact of their actions. Their self-concept or the way they perceive themselves, need to be addressed.

Many educationists and psychologists are of the opinion that a low self-esteem is a determinant of at-risk behaviour and is characteristic of learners with emotional and behavioural problems (Alban-Metcalfe, et al., 2001: 78). Mcwhirter et al. (1998: 85) is of the opinion that "as children mature, their self-evaluations become more differentiated and less global and a strong relationship exists between young peoples' self-evaluations and their performance."

It is also true that children who have experienced success and have a high self-esteem are well adjusted and happy. It is, therefore, important that educators affirm children so that they can feel valued and of worth and also to enhance their personal effectiveness.

The opposite is also true that children who had few experiences of success may engage in anti-social or self-defeating behaviour to enhance their self-esteem (McWhirter, et al., 1998: 85; McConnon, 1992: 1).

Different terms are used that relate to the self. Alban-Metcalfe et al. (2001: 79) illustrate the relationship between the self-esteem and other "self-referent" terms in figure 5.5 as follows:

Figure 5.7 **SELF CONCEPT**

Self-concept (awareness of self) Who am I?		
Self-image (characteristics of self) What am I like?	Self-esteem (evaluation of self) How do I value myself?	Ideal self (goal of self) How would I like to be?

Source: Alban-Metcalfe et al. (2000: 79)

How you value yourself, how you think about yourself, how you would like to be, how you feel and how you perceive yourself or understand yourself influences how you will treat other people and approach new situations and life challenges. Ebersöhn and Eloff (2003: 51) take it to a higher level and believe that characteristics such as self-worth, self-confidence and positive self-concept are essential for intra-personal self-regulation. They believe that this is part of how you form your identity. According to the authors identity formation "is a dynamic process demanding of people to be involved, to supply meaning and to experience their self-evaluation."

To understand and to know where they go wrong, the impulsive learner must know him/herself. They must be able to answer the question "Who am I?" in order to know their identity. To answer this question in a positive manner will enhance their self-esteem. This will help them to identify their positive qualities within themselves.

Ebersöhn and Eloff (2003: 51) give the following outline of the phases of how a positive self-esteem develop or can be enhanced. Phases of identity formation or positive self-esteem development are:

- **Self-awareness**: This refers to knowledge that you are an individual, as well as your personal evaluation of your individual characteristics. For the impulsive learner, and more specific the destructive learner, this is an important departure in dealing with their behaviour. Ebersöhn and Eloff emphasize that "self-knowledge is a pre-requisite for self-identification."

- **Self-concept and identity**: This is determined by situation-specific perceptions and evaluations of who you are and what you can do. The self-concept, according to them is "dynamic in nature and can be regarded as a set of situation-related attitudes and beliefs you hold of yourself that determines who you are, what you think you are and who you can become."

- **Self-worth**: This refers to your experience of yourself in both positive and negative terms, as well as perceptions of yourself. This view of the self-concept ties in with Alban-Metcalfe's view, as mentioned earlier, that the self-esteem refers to how you value yourself.

- **Self-confidence**: To have a high self-esteem one must belief in oneself. Your self-confidence is determined by your expectations of your possible successes or failures, which are founded on self-judgement.

As a starting point, learners must be supported by parents and educators to become aware of their strengths and weaknesses. They must become more aware about the challenges of life and how they respond to these challenges or situations. In other words, as Ebersöhn and Eloff (2003: 51) put it, "seeing themselves as good or bad, capable or incapable, happy or unhappy, in response to what particular situations require of them."

Educators can enhance self-esteem in different ways, by modeling positive attitudes and beliefs, creating a self-enhancing environment by showing the learner that he is valued by recognizing his talents and by giving positive feedback that will lead to self-enabling behaviour. This can be the start or motivation for learners to be willing to acquire the necessary skills to have a realistic and positive self-concept. It is the educators' duty to continually reinforce positive self-concept. Ebersöhn and Eloff believe (2003: 51) that a dynamic, cyclical connection exists between the following elements:

- The acquisition and implementation of social skills.
- Self-enabling pro-active behaviour.
- Effective day-to-day functioning.
- Positive feedback.

It is clear from the above discussion that the impulsive learner can be helped successfully if he/she acquires the social skills that will eliminate and prevent the forming of negative emotions, but will increase the development of a positive self-image. If a positive self-image is in tact, the learner will be optimistic in his outlook in life, tackle the challenges in a more positive manner and also help him/her to apply patience and self-control if needed.

The strategies to enhance the self-esteem of the impulsive learner can be summarized in the following way:

A SUMMARY OF THE SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIOUR: IMPULSIVITY AND GUILT

STRATEGY 1: Self-esteem
Rationale: Self-esteem refers to your identity, your skills and qualities you have and how you perceive yourself in terms of self-confidence, happiness, etc. It forces one to become aware of oneself. To build the self-esteem of learners helps them to determine who they are, what they think they are, who they can be in terms of their attitudes and beliefs they have. The development of the self-esteem is crucial for the disruptive learners so that they can start believing in themselves and know there is hope to become a person that can be of value to society. Your self-esteem gives you the confidence to acquire new life skills (Ebersöhm & Eloff, 2003:52).

PAGE	TOPICS	AIM	ACTIVITY	SUMMARY
272	Exercise 1: All ABOUT Me	To help learners to become more aware of themselves and share information about themselves.	-Worksheet 5.19 All About Me -Discussions	The goal is to help the learner to know himself better through self-exploration. The learner also determines who in the group has similar tastes.
275	Exercise 2: Self-exploration	To give learners the opportunity to become aware and share their thoughts, feelings, beliefs and attitudes on a variety of personal issues.	-Worksheet 5.20 This Is ME -Discussions -Develop a questionaire -Interview	The process of self-exploration is moving to a higher level by assessing one's own values, beliefs, thoughts, feelings and attitudes. This activity not only helps the educator to determine how the learner views himself, but it helps the educator to know how to provide support. Self-confidence is built by focusing on the learners' talents, skills, personal accomplishments, rewards, etc.

278	Exercise 3: Positive qualities	To help learners to look for positive qualities or characteristics in others.	-Browse through magazines, newspapers, etc. -Make a collage -Do a presentation	Learners identify a person that they want to do research on. They make a collage by focussing on this person's skills, talents and values. During the presentation they tell the group why they chose this person. The idea is to inspire the learner and make him realize that he may have the same talents and skills. Hopefully the learner will realize through the research that this person also has weaknesses or made mistakes in life, but used it as a learning opportunity and turned it into something positive.
278	Exercise 4: How others see me	To help learners realize that they are not worthless as they thought they were and also to appreciate the good qualities of other members in the group.	-Drawing of self -Write positive comments on drawings -Discussion Worksheet 5.21 How Others see Me -Explore feelings	The learner's feelings of worthlessness are addressed by using the group to write positive comments on that person's drawing but also to emphasize the talents, skills and values of the learner. The learner is also forced to reflect on how these positive comments make him feel.
281	Exercise 5: It's good to be me	To help learners to look for positive qualities in themselves.	-Worksheet 5.22 It's good to be me -Discussions	The learner reflects on his own talents, skills and values. This is to boost his confidence and to make him believe that although he made mistakes, there are still a lot of good things that can be said of him.

283	Exercise 6: It's great to be me	To help learners increase their sense of self-worth by affirming their self-worth.	-Poster -Worksheet 5.23 It's great to be me -Discussion -Art	The group takes part in making a poster of each learner in the group. The focus is on the individual's talents, skills, personal qualities, appearance, achievements and best qualities. Each member in the group gets a chance to write something about the learner. This is done to increase the learner's self-esteem through other learner's affirmations. The learner is involved in the activity where he acknowledges his own skills, talents, achievements, etc.

The following strategies can be implemented to enhance the self-esteem:

- **Self-awareness**

In order for the learner to apply self-control and to achieve her/his goals the learner must know him/herself. It is difficult to perceive oneself accurately and to gain knowledge of oneself is not easy. Especially disruptive learners have a problem of how they perceive themselves or how they interpret their behaviour or the consequences of their behaviour.

Educators can do the following exercises with learners to enhance self-awareness so that a positive self-esteem can develop.

- Exercise 1: All about me
- Exercise 2: Self-exploration
- Exercise 3: Positive qualities
- Exercise 4: How others see me
- Exercise 5: It's good to be me
- Exercise 6: It's great to be me

Exercise 1: ALL ABOUT ME, adapted from McConnon (1990: 12-16).

Aim: To help learners to become more aware of themselves and share information about themselves.

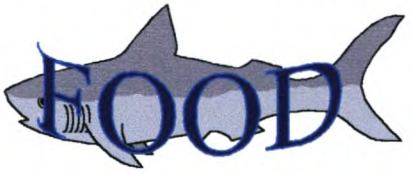
The learner completes Worksheet 5.19, **All about me** and shares the information with the educator or the group.

Worksheet 5.19

ALL ABOUT ME

Name:_____ Date: _____

Fill in Section 1. When you have done this, repeat some of your answers in the box in section 2, then find people in the group who share your tastes and write their names in the box..



My favourite kind of meat is:

_____

My favourite vegetable is:

_____

My favourite fruit is:

_____

My favourite pudding is:

_____

My favourite dish I like:

_____

My favourite male singer is:

_____

My favourite female singer is:

_____

I think the best single is:

_____

The best CD is:

_____

My favourite DJ is:

_____

My favourite pop group is:

_____

Good values about the group that attracts me

_____

Give two reasons why you think you can identify with the group:

_____

_____

My favourite TV program is: _____

The program I hate most is: _____

The best comedy is: _____

The best quiz show is: _____

I watch _____hours per day TV

My favourite sport show is: _____

Name the lessons you have learned from your favourite TV show_____

The subject I like the best:

_____

The subject I like the least:

_____

The sport at school is:

_____

Activities I like the most are:

_____

Societies I am involved in are:

_____

The best time of the day at school is:

_____

A good deed I have done at school:

_____

Duties I do:

Before school:_____

After school:_____

Sports I take part in:_____

Section 2

	Answer	Person with similar taste
My favourite movie is:		
My favourite DJ is:		
My best subject at school is:		
My favourite sport is:		
The animal I would choose as a pet is:		
My favourite TV program is:		

LIKES AND DISLIKES

	FAVOURITE	LEAST FAVOURITE
COLOUR		
NUMBER		
DAY		
MONTH		
TIME OF DAY		

Exercise 2: SELF-EXPLORATION

Aim: To give learners the opportunity to become aware of and share their thoughts, feelings, beliefs and attitudes on a variety of personal issues.

2.1 The learners complete Worksheet 5.20 **This is me!** adapted from McConnon, (1990: 15-16). When done it can be discussed with the educator.

This exercise will increase greater awareness, but will also help them to disclose things of a personal nature. McConnon suggests that the educator can group the sentences in blocks of five. This is especially good for the impulsive learner who is so overwhelmed with guilt. In this way there is a gradual process to develop his/her awareness.

This exercise can also be used with the anti social learner. Include statements marked with * for anti social learner, but omit for the impulsive learner.

2.2 This exercise should only include positive statements.
For the shy learner this can be done in a group or during circle time. Alban-Metcalfe et al. (2001: 83) regards an activity of this nature, of particular significance, because the whole class can witness their achievements. This has implications of how the learner views himself and how he/she will change their own perceptions of themselves. It will also give them an idea of how the group evaluates them, which will have implications for future interactions.

Write all the statements in worksheet 5.20 on different cards. The group sits in a circle and draw of the pack of cards that is in the centre. No learner should be forced to complete a sentence. The educator must make an effort to gradually incorporate the learner who has no confidence to talk.

2.3 Another way to encourage self-disclosure is to allow the learners to develop a questionnaire that will enable them to learn as much as possible from the next person in their class. Learners interview each other by using the questionnaire and share it with the class.

To help the learner to be self-affirming and affirmed by others, the learner introduce his/her partner and reveals to the group the talents, skills, personal qualities, accomplishments, rewards, etc. of his partner.

Worksheet 5.20 **THIS IS ME**

THIS IS ME

Name:_____ **Date:**_____

1.I like people who_____

2.*I feel sad when _____

3 .The best thing that could happen to me_____

4. *I hate_____

5. When I am older I_____

6. I wish I could_____

7. I feel lonely when I_____

8. *I think I hurt others when I _____

9. *I am afraid of_____

10. When I look at my life_____

11. I worry about_____

12. I care about_____

13. I am happy when_____

14. I get upset when_____

15. I hope_____

16. I feel jealous when_____

17. I would like_____

18.I am at my best when_____

19. *I feel bad when_____

20. The worst thing that could happen to me is _____

21. I want to be _____

22. I like myself because_____

23. I feel great when I_____

24. Most people think that I_____

25. I think_____

_____

Exercise 3: POSITIVE QUALITIES

Aim: To help learners to look for positive qualities or characteristics in others.

Learners can look in magazines, books, newspapers, etc. for pictures of well-known figures. They must make a collage of this person by for instance focussing on the following:

- Skills
- Talents
- Values
- What makes him/her a role model

Learners can make a presentation of their collage to the group.

Exercise 4: HOW OTHERS SEE ME, Jasmine (1997: 17).

Aim: To help learners realize that they are not worthless as they thought they are and also to appreciate the good qualities of other members in the group.

4.1 Learners can draw their face or whole body on a sheet of paper and write their name on the top of the paper. This picture must be circled around in the group. Each person writes a positive comment about the person. The educator must stress it to the group that no negative comments will be allowed.
Worksheet 5.21, **How others see me** as designed by Jasmine (1997: 17), can be handed out to the learners.

4.2 The papers must be handed back to the learners who will read through the comments.

4.3 The following can now be discussed:

- How did they feel when they have read through the comments.

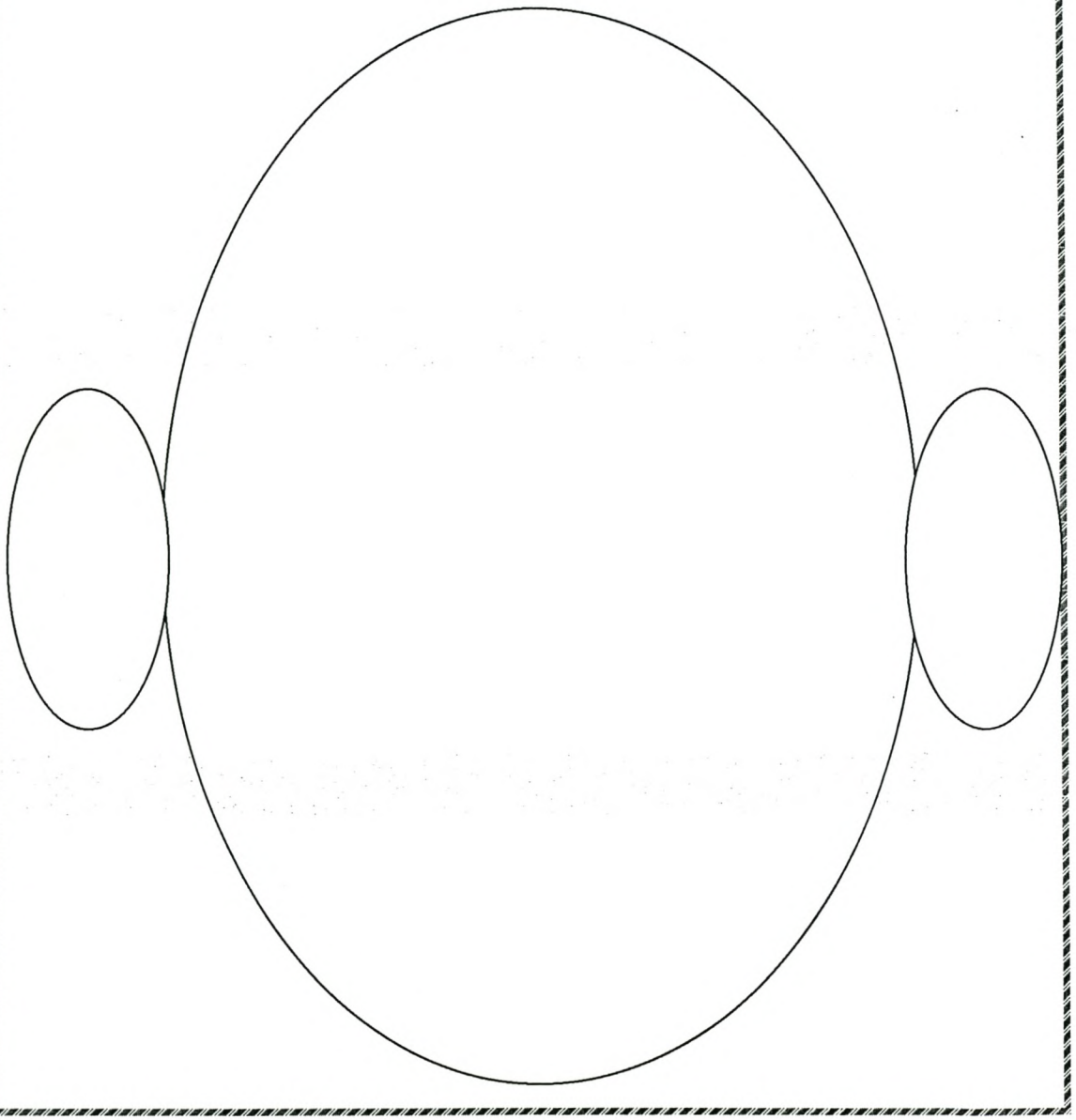
- Did the words make you feel good about yourself?

This activity can be kept in the portfolio or pasted on the learner's desk to remind him/herself of the positive qualities others see in him. This will minimize the feelings of worthlessness.

Worksheet 5.21 **HOW OTHERS SEE ME**

HOW OTHERS SEE ME

I LIKE YOU BECAUSE YOU ARE ... _____.



Source: Jasmine (1997: 17)

Exercise 5: IT'S GOOD TO BE ME adapted from McConnon (1989: 9-11)

Aim: To help learners to look for positive qualities in themselves.

5.1 Learners complete Worksheet 5.22 **It's good to be me.**

Worksheet 5.22 **IT'S GOOD TO BE ME**

IT'S GOOD TO BE ME !

What my mum likes about me is _____

The best thing ever said to me by my mum or dad _____

What my teachers like about me is _____

What my friends like about me is _____

What people like about me is _____

The most important thing in the world to me is _____

I like myself because _____

I am good at _____

My best subject is _____

The sport I am best at is _____

I am happy when _____

I feel OK when _____

I feel important when _____

I have the power to _____

What I care most in life is _____

I feel good when _____

I feel successful when _____

I am getting better at _____

The best thing about being me is _____

My strengths are _____

I am proud that I _____

The person I most admire is _____

Adapted from McConnon (1989: 9-11)

5.2 The learner can share the above information with the group and discuss the following with the educator:

- How do you feel about yourself right now.
- In which situations were the positive comments made.

5.3 When doing this exercise in the group, McConnon suggests it can be done in the following way:

- Write all the above statements as it appear in worksheet 5.22 on different cards.
- The following can be added:
  Person on your left - name two things you admire in them.
  Person on your left – what quality has he/she that you wish you have.
  Person on your right – say two things you like about them.
  Person on your left – what is his/her best characteristic?
  Person opposite you – what do people like about him/her?
  In this group the person I most admire is _____ because ....
  If you could be anyone in the group, who would it be and why?
- The cards are shuffled and volunteers take the card from the top.
- Each learner takes a card and completes the sentence.

Exercise 6: IT'S GREAT TO BE ME, McConnon (1989: 21).

Aim: To help learners increase their sense of self-worth by affirming their self-worth.

6.1 Each learner receives a big sheet of paper and writes his/her name on it.
The following headings must be written on it:

- Talents and skills
- Personal qualities

- My appearance
- My achievements
- My best qualities

6.2 This is then circled around in the group where each learner gets a chance to write something good about the other learner.

6.3 Each learner circles the two comments they like the most under each section. This can be filled in on the Worksheet 5.23, **I'ts great to be me,** and discussed in the group or with the educator alone.

Worksheet 5.23 **ITS GREAT TO BE ME**

I'TS GREAT TO BE ME

Name: _____ Date: _____

SECTION A

Talents and skills (I am good at...)

1. _____
2. _____

Personal Qualities (I am liked because...)

1. _____
2. _____

My appearance (My good features are ...)

1. _____
2. _____

My achievements (I have achieved ...)

1. _____
2. _____

My best qualities (My best qualities are ...)

1. _____
2. _____

SECTION B

Awards I have received _____

Things I've made _____

The subjects I'm good at _____

The groups I belong to _____

My hobbies and interests _____

McConnon (1989: 21)

6.3 Compare your good qualities with the person you made the collage of in exercise 3.

- Make a drawing of yourself to depict each of the sections done in section A. This drawing can be anything.
- The creative learner can compose a song or write a poem that describes him/herself.

5.3.2.5.2 Dealing with irrational thinking

In the previous chapter it was emphasized that the way children think can affect the way they feel which will in turn influence how they act. Normally negative feelings develop with the way people perceive an event or interpret a situation. One can, therefore, not always blame external forces for how one is feeling. The educator must attack the irrational thinking of the learner. Although wrong choices or interpretations were made, it does not mean the learner is incompetent or bad.

The strategy dealing with irrational thinking can be summarized as follows:

STRATEGY 2: Dealing with irrational Thinking **Rationale:** Impulsive learners experiencing guilt are driven by their maladaptive beliefs they have of a situation or event. Regardless of their current life experiences. The rationale of this strategy is to teach these learners to unlearn these maladaptive beliefs by looking at ways to develop better cognitive thinking patterns and abilities and to replace incomplete or faulty cognitions. By not only recognizing how their faulty statements lead to destructive behaviour, but also to substitute it with positive ones.				
290	Exercise 1: My perceptions	To help learners to focus on their irrational thinking and to support him to see the value of adopting a positive outlook on life.	Interpreting pictures	The educator gives the learner a set of pictures. They must describe what they see in each picture or how the interpret the incident. The focus is to highlight how our thoughts and perceptions can influence our feelings and actions.
292	Exercise 2: Handling positive comments	To help learners acquire the skills involved in handling positive comments and the opportunity to practise them.	-Group work	The educator writes certain comments on a board. The learners must respond and accept the comment in a kind way and not reject it, because impulsive learners who experience a lot of guilt always think that they should be punished and never want to hear positive things about them. never hear positive
293	Exercise 3: Seeing the light	To give the learner insight in what his role is in his self-defeating	-Card game -Discussion	Certain characteristics such as likeable, tolerant, etc. are written on cards. The learner will draw a card that suits him best and give reasons for his choice.

		behaviour is.		He must also choose three characteristics that he would have liked to have. The learner and the educator discuss reasons that prevent him to be for e.g. confident. His self-defeating behaviours are highlighted and one of those could be "put-downs". They feel comfortable with put-downs, because they think they deserve it. The educator can do the timeline with the learner.
294	Exercise 4: Personal Put-downs	To make the learner aware of how he devalues himself and how it influences his behaviour.	Worksheet 5.24 Personal Put-downs	The educator does the timeline with the learner to highlight his positive qualities and where he showed self-control. The learner will devalue himself, but the educator must teach the learner to make positive comments about him. They can refer back to the worksheet **It's great to be me** to assure the learner that he has a lot of positive qualities and he is a great person, but we all do mistakes and we can learn from it. The learner practices how to turn personal put-downs into something positive.
296	Exercise 5: Be Happy	To help learners believe in themselves and that they have positive qualities and the skills to	-Case study -Discussion Worksheet 5.25 Be Happy -Worksheet 5.3, The river flow chart.	The educator do the timeline with the learner and write the crisis situation up as a case study or a fictitious case study can be used where the character is experiencing the same problems as the learner. The case study is analysed by

		apply self-control.		looking at what the crisis is, and what the character's thoughts, feelings and behaviour are. Ways to address the self-defeating behaviour is explored. The educator highlights how the one incident leads to another and eventually becomes an unmanageable situation. The learner completes a worksheet by reflecting on his own crisis, by looking at his opinion of himself, his feelings and what was positive about the situation. The educator and learner look at strategies that can be implemented to ensure a positive outcome.
299	Exercise 6: I believe in me	To re-affirm all the positive qualities that was identified of the learner.	Worksheet 5.26 I believe in me	The learner and the educator reflect on all the activities that they have done and what he has learned from it. The learner also reflects how it changed his life and he evaluates himself.

The educator can attempt to address the irrational thinking of the learner by doing the following exercises with the learner.

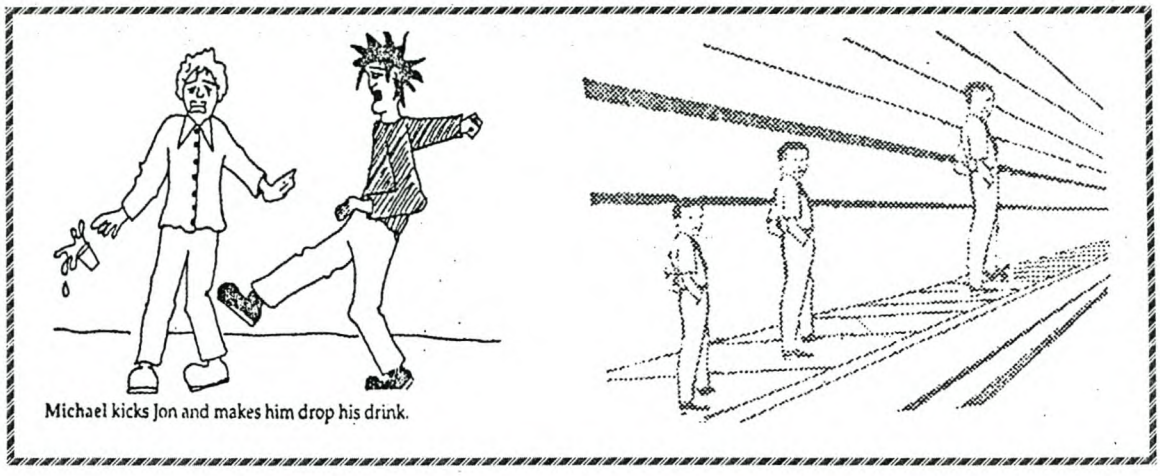
- Exercise 1: My perceptions
- Exercise 2: handling positive comments
- Exercise 3: Seeing the light
- Exercise 4: Personal put-downs
- Exercise 5: Be happy
- Exercise 6: I believe in me

Exercise 1: MY PERCEPTIONS, adapted from McConnon (1989: 27-29: Gurney, 1998: 29,96).

Aim: To help the learner to focus on his/her irrational thinking and to support him/her to see the value of adopting a positive outlook in life.

1.1 The educator can explain that there are similarities and differences in the way we see and interpret things and events. This influences our judgement. This can be illustrated by giving learners pictures of ambiguous shapes and optical illusions.

- Ask learners to view the following pictures:



Source: McConnon (1998: 28) and Gurney (1998: 29)

- Discuss the following:
  - What sort of things did the learners see in the pictures.
  - Did everyone see them in the same way? Why?
  - How did every one interpret the situation where the boy dropped his cool drink? (Some may regard it as an accident or some may regard it as done on purpose or to provoke the one boy).
  - Which boy is the tallest?
  - Discuss what the consequence of each interpretation may be.
  - What real life situation were you in where you made the wrong interpretation and
  - What was the consequence?
  - What feelings were involved when you made this interpretation and how did it affect your actions or decisions?
  - Were your actions determined by outside events or the way you perceived the situation.

Exercise 2: HANDLING POSITIVE COMMENTS adapted from McConnon (1989: 22).

Aim: To help learners acquire the skills involved in handling positive comments and the opportunity to practice them.

2.1 Each learner gets a partner.
They go through the positive comments made to them in the previous exercise 4 and share the following:

- Learners role-play the comments made to them and
- The other learner give a response to the comment made.

2.2. The teacher first role models an example.
Example of a response could be: "Thank you. It is kind of you."

2.3 Learners discuss the following:

- What was the comment?
- What was the response?
- Was it a good response?
- Why did the group think this was a good response?
- The educator can draw attention to the skills involved in handling positive comments and demonstrate it.

McConnon points out that positive comments are often greeted with embarrassment or a denial. This is often true of the impulsive learner who struggles with feelings of inadequacy. Learners can respond to positive comments by maintaining eye contact, avoiding nervous mannerisms, mentally accepting the comments as true and sincerely meant and accept the comments verbally.

A video camera can be used to make learners aware of their non-verbal behaviour and their mannerisms.

Exercise 3: SEEING THE LIGHT

Aim: To give the learner insight in what his role is in his self-defeating behaviour is.

3.1 Write the following words on a card taken from McConnon (1989 :22).

Fun	happy	generous	loyal	sensible	likeable
reliable	careful	hardworking	tries hard	sociable	friendly
quiet	confident	tolerant	affectionate		

- The learner must choose a card that best suits his/her personality. He/she must write or discuss three reasons for their choice.
- The learner must choose three cards that he/she would like to be. He /she must write three reasons for their choice.
- Do the timeline with the impulsive learner again. The learner must be able to identify the reasons that currently prevent him/her to acquire those characteristics.
- The learner must be able to identify the skills and the qualities needed to acquire those characteristics and to prevent the self-defeating behaviour.

The educator can now high light that one of the barriers is the use of ' put-downs '. McConnon (1989: 23) regards a 'put-down' as "anything which make a person feel de-valued and bad about him/herself. It can be a name, gesture or situation, from name-calling to being ignored."

The impulsive learner is a master in using 'put-downs' on themselves. They devalue themselves to such an extent that through their actions they make sure that other people also devalues them. They feel comfortable when somebody use 'put-downs' on them

and feel they deserve this gesture, name-calling or punishment. This often leads to outbursts and acting-out behaviour.

Timeline

Do the timeline with the learner again to determine his/her positive qualities or where he/she constituted self-control. An accurate description of any incident the educator is going to focus on must be gained from the learner's point of view without making any value judgements about the behaviour.

Although one must not focus on the negative in this central issue, it is important to make the learner aware of how she devalues him/herself by teaching. The learner must be taught how to make positive comments about him/herself.

The educator needs to assure the learner that he/she is a good person, but that they make poor choices by for example storming out of a classroom instead of making the educator aware that something is troubling them. It is important to ensure the learner that you as the educator is not mad at them, but that you were troubled for example by her anger or loss of self-control. These learners are full of remorse for showing these inappropriate behaviours or for breaking classroom rules.

Exercise 4: PERSONAL PUT-DOWNS

Aim: To make the learner aware of how he devalues himself and how it influences his behaviour.

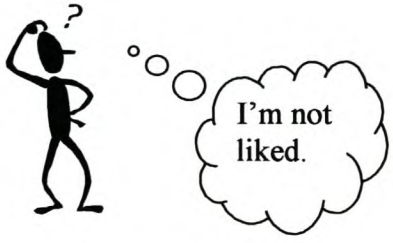
The learner can fill in the Worksheet 5.24, **Personal put-downs** adapted from McConnon (1989: 29)**.** In each empty bubble a positive comment must be written.

Worksheet 5.24 **PERSONAL PUT DOWNS**

PERSONAL PUT-DOWNS

Name: _____ **Date:** _____

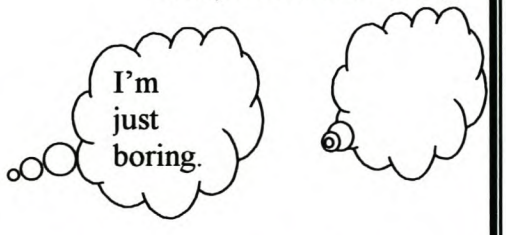
Example: They didn't ask me along



Write a positive interpretation in each bubble.

1. I kicked the paint over.

2. My friend didn't ring.



3. I made a mess of that.

4. They teased me about my hair.

3. Use your own situation. Write down your negative comment and next to it a positive comment.

Exercise 5: BE HAPPY

Aim: To help learners to believe in themselves and that they have positive qualities and the skills to apply self-comtrol.

5.1 The educator can use any incident where the learner was involved and write up as a case study.

Example: A case study

John is feeling very depressed today. It feels that whenever he is around people, especially at school or in the neighbourhood he is in trouble. In the classroom he frequently acts out and tears up his work. He does feel bad about his behaviour, and knows they shouldn't talk while busy with a project, because it is disturbing to the rest of the class. Without thinking he starts to talk to his friend. When his teacher reprimands him in front of the class, he gets upset. His best friend is telling him that his anger is making people unhappy. He believes he is an awful person, because he is a disturbance to the class.

Discuss the following:

- What were John's thoughts during the incident.
- How did his thoughts influence his actions.
- What was John's perception of the incident?
- Use this opportunity to help John understand his self-destructive pattern of responding to a stressful incident. He must realize how the one incident leads to another and another and another. Redl (Long and Wilder, 1993: 40) used the term "clinically explain the incident".
- Complete the **Cause-and-Effect Tree,** Worksheet 5.2, to help the learner to understand his/her feelings and behaviour better and how to make better choices.
- Affirmation is important to avoid the learner regressing into punitive behaviour.

5.2 The learner can complete the Worksheet 5.25, **Be Happy** adapted from McConnon (1989: 32).

This activity helps the learner to become aware when he acted in a positive way during the crisis and the influence it had on the situation. By doing this the learner starts to believe in himself and that he has the positive qualities to apply self-control.

To structure the learner's thoughts, he can complete Worksheet 5.3, **The river flow chart.**

Worksheet 5.25 **BE HAPPY**

BE HAPPY				
Describe the incident	**Opinion of self**	**Feelings about self**	**What is positive about the situation**	**How can I avoid a crisis**
1.				
2.				

Adapted from McConnon (1989: 32)

5.3 Discuss the following:

- Discuss the positive comments the learner wrote.
- What effect does the negative comment have on a person who sees him the worst in herself.
- What effect do the negative comments have on a person who sees the worst in everything and everybody?
- What are the outcomes for someone who sees the bright side of things?
- Which person is happier?
- How did you feel when you assert yourself and didn't act out?
- How do you feel now that you know you have the qualities and characteristics to avoid displaying negative and impulsive behaviour?

The focus is to explore the consequences of the two approaches to an incident – negative or positive.

Exercise 6: I BELIEVE IN ME, Worksheet 5.26 adapted from McConnon (1989: 36).

Aim: To re-affirm all the positive qualities that was identified of the learner.
Learners can refer back to their portfolio.

To sum it all up, the learner can complete the following Worksheet 5.26, **I believe in me.**

Worksheet 5.26 **I BELIEVE IN ME**

I BELIEVE IN ME

I believe I am a person of worth. (Motivate your answer.)

1. _____
2. _____

I am a successful person. Here are some of my achievements.

1. _____
2. _____

I believe in friendship. People say I am a friend, because:

1. _____
2. _____

I believe I am an important person. Here are some of the skills and talents I can offer:

1. _____
2. _____

I believe everyone wants positive comments, and the more I see myself in a more positive light the happier I will be. Positive comments I give myself:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

I believe my life can change and that I have the power to make it happen. I could change my life in these ways:

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

Adapted from McConnon (1989: 36)

5.3.2.5.3 Self-management skills

These strategies can be implemented to help the learner to reduce the urge to act impulsively. Earlier in this chapter it was mentioned how important it is for learners to acquire a meta-cognitive perspective to gain insight to become more responsible and independent.

Self-management strategies help learners to have control over their affective, cognitive and behavioural reactions. It is particularly helpful, as cited in McWhirter et al. (1998: 228), for at-risk learners, because it helps them to avoid problem situations, limit negative emotional reactions, delay gratification, and resist disruptive behaviour. Self-management skills help the learner to work on their behaviour without depending on external factors, but focus on their goals they have set.

Self-management skills can also improve academic results. It is especially helpful for those learners who struggle to stay on task, act on their impulses and disrupt the class. These learners are encouraged to take responsibility for their successes and failures by recognizing whether they had a part in their failure. By using self-management as a strategy the impulsive learner can gain insight in how he plays a part in his self-defeating behhaviour.

Self-management skills make the learner involve in his/her own learning. This notion of being part of one's own learning to become independent and self-reliant ties in with South-Africa's new OBE curriculum.

The following are examples of self-management skills that can be taught to the impulsive learner.

- Self-assessment
- Self-instruction/ Conscious pro-active self talk

- Self-reinforcement
- Self-monitoring
- Decision making skills

The following summary will give an idea of how this strategy can be taught to learners who have poor self-control skills.

STRATEGY 3: Self-management Skills **Rationale:** Self-management skills provide impulsive learners with skills and strategies to have insight and control over their feelings, thoughts and behaviour. As cited in McWhirter et al. (1998:228) it helps them to think before they act, and therefore, resist disruptive behaviour, delay gratification and to avoid problem situations.				
306	Self-assessment	To systematically evaluate themselves to determine whether their behaviour has been adequate or not	Self-assessment scale	-The learner gets an idea if his actions are socially acceptable or is it adequate. -They evaluate themselves on a scale to see where which areas need attention. -Specific behaviour with the educator is identified that need to be changed.
	Self-instruction/ Conscious Pro-Active Self talk	To help learners to become aware and to regulate their emotions and behaviour to avoid acting impulsively.	-Five-step cognitive model -Performance relevant skills -Figure 5.8 and 5.9 Self-instruction cueing cards	Self-talk strategies are extremely valuable when one must make certain decisions and choices. -The learner learns to identify opportunities for learning in demanding situations. -He is taught how to guide himself through a crisis by talking or instructing himself. -The learner consciously control himself by regulating his impulses through self-talk. This is done by regulating his mind. -The educator guides the learner to act upon personal values. -This strategy is taught through verbal commentary and the modelling of

				solutions to problems. Performance relevant skills are implemented to guide the process.
	Self-reinforcement	To help the learner to both monitor and evaluate his/her own behaviour and performances and also to administer his own consequences.	Integrated with other activities	The learner is taught to make judgements about his behaviour in a positive way. -The learner is taking charge of his own life. -With the educator the learner decides on positive consequences.
	Self-monitoring	To enable the learner to observe and record his own behaviour by focusing on his own characteristics, thoughts or behaviour.	Integrated with other activities.	-The educator supports the learner to collect data and monitor his own behaviour. -This involves the learner in the management of his behaviour and the learning process. -The learner becomes aware of his strengths and his weaknesses. This technique is combined with other strategies.
316	**Decision-making skills** Exercise 1: Decisions	To help learners become aware of all the choices and decisions they have to make in life.	-Discussions -Worksheet 5.27 Decisions	-Learners learn to make the right choices and decisions before they act. -The educator guides the learner by taking them through the decisions one has to make every day -They look at easy and difficult decisions one must make and how it

				impacts on one's lives. -Learners evaluate how easy or difficult decision making is for them.
319	Exercise 2: My decision-making style	To help learners become aware of their style of making decisions and choices.	-Discussion -Reflecting -Worksheet 5.28 Which way is best	Educator emphasizes how all self-management strategies such as self-talk, self-monitoring, etc. can help to make the right decisions and choices. -Learner reflect on own decision-making style and how effective it is. -Learner learns how to manage the implementation of bad choices and decisions by looking at the most common mistakes the learner makes.
321	Exercise 3: Problem-solving and Decision-making Model	To give learners the skills to think logically when making satisfactory decisions and choices.	-Write statements on cards and learner rank orders them. -Worksheet 5.29 Making a decision -Progress chart 5.230	-The six steps one can follow when making a decision is explained. -Learner use cards and put the statements about decision making in the right order. This helps the educator to see if the learner understands the process of decision making. -Logical thinking is emphasized. -A real life situation is taken where the learner must apply his skills -Decision making – and self-control skills are evaluated together with the completion of a progress chart.

- **Self-assessment**

Self-assessment, according to McWhirter et al. (1998: 229) "is the systematic evaluation of one's own behaviour to determine whether or not it has been adequate." Young people, especially disruptive youth, must be made aware of their behaviour to improve it. This can be adequately by done assessing and evaluating one's own behaviour.

A problem with learners with emotional- and behavioural problems is that they struggle to set standards to assess their behaviour against. This problem can be overcome if the educator models acceptable behaviour or if the learner can assess him against significant others in the community or at school. Peers can also play a major role to set standards.

As done in previous exercises, the teacher can help the learner to rate himself on a scale of 1-10. It is advisable that the learner and the educator first select a specific behaviour that needs to be changed. When this is done the rating system can be developed. McWhirter et al. (1998: 229) mention that a learner's class outbursts can be rated if the learner is supported to rate his underlying moods, needs and behaviour. If a child has no desire to hit or explode, the rating will be 0. If several outbursts occur during a week, the rating will be 10.

Example:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
No desire to hit or explode			resisted desire to hit or explode						several outbursts

- **Self-instruction/self-talk**

Ebersöhn and Eloff (2003: 57) feel strongly that self-talk is a crucial factor to manage effective behaviour when regulation is done through cognition. A pre-condition to become aware and to self-regulate one's emotions is "conscious, evaluative self-talk". The internal dialogue (the whispering self), according to Watson (2000: 3) is a "critical agent" to determine success or failure at schools.

The foundation for self-management on one's behaviour is embedded in the way one talk to oneself (think) and how we deal with situations or people. Self-talk, according to Ebersöhn and Eloff (2003: 61) "takes place on an unconscious level and is subject to people's idiosyncratic frame of reference and unique perceptions." They regard this process as a filter for feelings and actions. Before you react, behaviourally and emotionally, to any situation unconscious self-talk will first take place. Conscious Pro-active Self-talk (CPS) as termed by Ebersöhn and Eloff (2003: 61) can be used to organize and control behaviour in an effective way (Alban-Metcalfe, et al., 2001: 74).

By using CPS one can avoid to act impulsively on an object or situation by actively directing your behaviour. This helps the leaner to not just react, but rather act in a pro-active and positive way. If one pro-actively organizes one's thought through CPS, one is not merely an "organism that responds on a stimulus" (Ebersohn and Eloff, 2003: 62) which so often happen to disruptive youth. Their behaviour is often driven by emotions and not by cognitive processes. Self-talk can play a role to help these learners to manage their behaviour in a pro-active manner. Watson (2000: 2-3) agrees with this view and as previously mentioned, believe that what learners say to themselves influence their failure rate or determine how successful they are at school. He believes that "the task of educators is to structure experiences that reduce negative, counterproductive faulty self-talk while inviting students to define themselves in essentially positive and realistic ways." This is especially vital in dealing with learners who have to deal with their remorse. Their negative internal dialogue often becomes a

self-fulfilling prophecy. They become their own enemies when they expect rejection and defeat. As mentioned previously, our ultimate goal is to make the learner aware that they can be in control of their lives and how they see themselves, their thoughts, how they feel and how they act.

Ebersöhn and Eloff (2003: 62) emphasize the above view by stressing that "people who use CPS have the ability to decide how environments or people influence or change them." This strategy makes the learner aware that he has the power in his hand to choose and to take responsibility for those choices as discussed previously under logical consequences. The freedom to choose, Ebersöhn and Eloff believe, constitutes self-awareness, build the self-esteem, expand imagination, in other words, apply own will.

When one becomes aware of making choices, one becomes aware of the faults in one own make-up and can implement techniques to develop one self. CPS can help the learner to see the opportunities for learning in demanding situations, because according to Watson (2000: 4) it has a "'here and now' immediate awareness reality". When learners realize this they will have the insight that their choices influences their actions which are based on values and that one can't always blame circumstances which are influenced by your feelings. The disruptive learner or the impulsive learner will allow the environment, their feelings and circumstances to drive their behaviour. The resilient learner as discussed in chapter four, on the other hand, have the ability to control impulses and act upon personal values. Watson (2000: 7) is also of the opinion that learners who practice positive and realistic self-talk accept their limitations, but also recognizes their potential. It builds and strengthens resilience and can defuse stress.

The need for instant gratification by the impulsive learner can, therefore, be consciously controlled by regulating their impulses through self-talk. When the learner is able to do this, he is able to pro-actively regulating or controlling his/her state of mind. This Ebersöhn and Eloff (2003: 62) believe enables the learner to "motivate themselves,

heighten their powers of perseverance, and behave optimistically- whatever the demands of life makes on them."

Albert and Troutman (1995: 449) agree with the above line of thought and regard the process of self-instruction or CPS as 'a process of providing one's own prompts." Normally, the educator makes prompts, but self-instruction is about providing prompts for oneself. If the learner is about to find him in a situation where he knows it can get out of hand, he can talk himself through the situation. Self-instruction or self-talk enables the learner to become independent when dealing with awkward situations. The educator can teach the learner self-talk strategies through verbal commentary and modeling solutions to problem situations. This is a strategy that needs to be practiced and role modeled several times to give the learner the self-confidence to apply it successfully (Albert and Troutman, 1995: 449; Alban-Metcalfe, et al., 2001: 74).

A five-step cognitive model was developed by Meichenbaum and Goodman (1971: 117 in Alberto & Troutman, 1995: 450) to increase self-control skills. The process can be described as follows:

- The educator model performed the task while talking to himself out loud (cognitive modeling).
- The learner performed the same task under the direction of the educator's instruction (overt, external guidance).
- The learner performed the task while instructing himself aloud (overt self-guidance).
- The learner whispered the instructions to himself as he went through the task (faded, overt self-guidance).
- The learner performed the task while guiding his performance via private speech (covert self-instruction.).

Alberto and Troutman (1995: 450-451) emphasize that for the learner to imitate and effectively complete the strategy, the educator must include in the initial modeling

several "performance-relevant skills" that guide the process or task. These skills as mentioned by Meichenbaum (1977: 123, in Alberto and Troutman, 1995: 450) include:

- Problem definition ("what is it I have to do", What is it that is upsetting me or frustrating me").
- Focusing attention and response guidance ("Carefully ... use the right language", "Stay calm", "Ignore the comments", I am not going to allow him to get me in trouble this time.").
- Self-reinforcement ("Good, I'm doing fine").
- Self-evaluative coping skills and error-correction options ("That's okay... Even if I make an error I can go on slowly and show the other person that his tactics to get me in trouble is not working this time.).

With self-instruction training visual cues can be added, especially for the impulsive learner to remind and encourage them to use self-instruction statements. Alberto and Troutman (1995: 451) suggest that cards with instructions and self-directed commands be printed. This can be kept on the learner's desk.

Examples of visual cards, according to Alberto and Troutman (1995: 451) for the off-task learner can be the following:

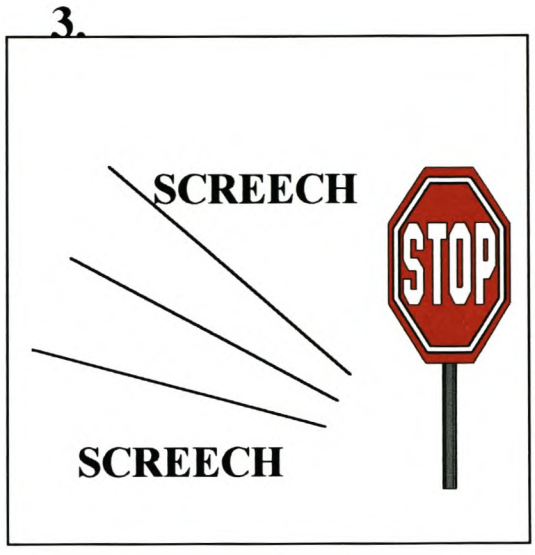
Figure 5.8 **Self-instruction cueing cards for the off-task learner.**

1. INSTRUCTIONS

THIS IS
A
STOP!
LISTEN
LOOK
and
THINK

2. EXPERIMENT

BEFORE I START ANY OF THE TASKS I AM GOING TO DO, IAM GOING TO SAY:
STOP!
LISTEN
LOOK
and
THINK !
BEFORE ! I ANSWER



4.

LISTEN!
LISTEN
LISTEN
LISTEN
LISTEN

5.

LOOK !
and
THINK!
BEFORE! I ANSWER

The above visual cards can be adapted in the following manner to support the impulsive learner who suffers from remorse and becomes aggressive.

Figure 5.9 **Self instruction cueing cards for the impulsive learner**

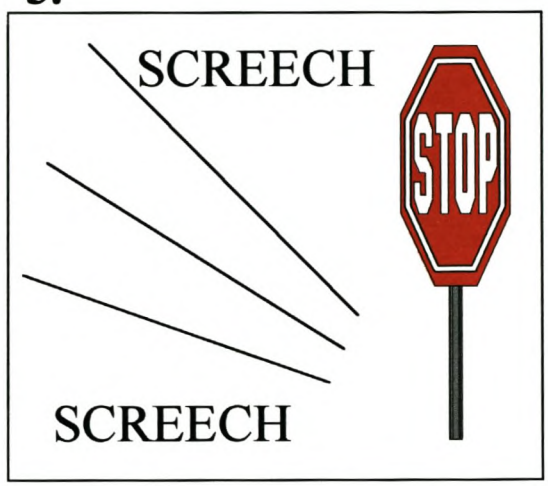
1. INSTRUCTIONS

THIS IS A
STOP!
LISTEN
LOOK
and
THINK

2. ACTION

BEFORE I START ACTING
OR REACT TO A RESPONSE,
I AM GOING TO SAY:
STOP!
LISTEN
LOOK and
THINK! BEFORE
I ACT!

3.



4.

SELF-TALK!
TALK YOURSELF
THROUGH IT
TALK YOURSELF
THROUGH IT
TALK YOURSELF
THROUGH IT

5.

LOOK!
and
THINK!
BEFORE! YOU
RESPOND

- Self-reinforcement

Self-reinforcement requires of the learner to both monitor and evaluate his/her own behaviour and performance and also to administer his/her own consequences. The fact that the learner can make judgements about his/her own behaviour means that he/she is taking charge of his/her life (McWhirter, et al., 1998:229; Alban- Metcalfe, et al., 2001: 73).

McWhirter et al. (1998: 229-230) also emphasize that the consequences the learner administer can be "intangible and intrinsic" (could be praising itself for reaching the target behaviour) or "tangible and external" (such as spoiling one self by buying one self something).

Applying consequences can be detrimental to the impulsive learner who always sees himself as bad and incompetent. A negative consequence could lead to self-criticism that can reinforce the self-defeating behaviour. If the educator decides on self-reinforcement as a technique, they will have to work closely with the learner by supporting and affirming them constantly to avoid feelings of helplessness and incompetence. If the educator is on guard against negative consequences this technique fosters the self-management process (McWhirter, et al., 1998: 230).

Alban-Metcalfe et al. (2001: 74) warn that the increase in self-reinforcement and the decrease in external reinforcement will be a lengthy process and the educator can expect relapses. This can be especially true with the learner who is so caught up in his/her feelings of guilt. Although it is such a long process, they still believe that this is a more acceptable or "dignified" form of intervention, because it helps the learner to become more self-regulated, especially if it is used in combination with self-monitoring and self-evaluation.

This technique works well with the impulsive learner who struggles to stay on task. It has been proven that academic results of these learners have improved, school performances have improved and their personal problems have minimized (McWhirter, et al., 1998:230; Alban and Troutman, 1995: 443-445).

- **Self-monitoring**

McCown et al. (1998: 13) is of the opinion that all people exhibit behavioural patterns, but most people need help to identify and understand their patterns. A good technique for identifying and understanding one's own behaviour patterns is through self-monitoring (Alban-Metcalfe, et al., 2001: 73; McWhirter et al., 1998: 229).

Self-monitoring enables the child to observe and record his/her own behaviour. McWhirter et al. (1998: 229) regard self-monitoring as more than recording one's own behaviour. They see it as a way how one is "focusing attention and awareness on one's characteristics, emotions, thoughts, or behaviour and is closely related to self-assessment." With self-monitoring the learner is also in control of his/her behaviour and in a good position to become aware of his/her negative behaviour.

If it is required of the learner to collect data to record and monitor his/her behaviour, the learner is at least managing one part of his/her behaviour change (Alberto and Troutman, 1995: 436). It focuses on the target behaviour and the learners learn to own their behaviour.

Alban-Metcalfe et al. (2001: 73) is of the opinion that self-monitoring can be used on its own, but it is more often used in combination with other self-management techniques. According to them this technique works best if combined with self-reinforcement or reinforcement by others.

- **Decision making skills**

From the above discussion one can make the assumption that the management of the self is about thought. The choices you make during a crisis situation will be affected by your thoughts or how you instruct yourself through a problem. The learner with low impulse control will have to change his/her internal dialogue or irrational thoughts in order to exercise self-control. Positive and realistic self-talk contributes to, according to Zastro (1994, in Watson, 2000: 4) "human dignity and self-efficacy". The way you talk to yourself or instruct yourself to make the right choices or decisions will have a profound effect on how you face challenges and handle yourself in life. The bottom line is that disruptive learners will have to learn to think about their situation and learn how to solve their problems in a logic way. No self-management strategy will be successful if these learners do not learn how to order their thoughts and to think about consequences. The way they think will influence the decisions they are going to make in a crisis situation.

Lack of decision-making skills is a common characteristic of high-risk learners. Their inability to make sound decisions is because of their failure to consider consequences, unwillingness to delay gratification, external locus of control and low impulse control. Another reason could be, as pointed out by Brendtro and his colleagues in chapter three and also by McWhirter et al. (1998: 88), is that their purpose in life is "limited", distorted or lacking.

As highlighted in chapter four, low-risk learners make sure they base their decisions on relevant information. They also have the ability to perceive a situation in an accurate way and show good comprehension. The information they gain will be personalized and they will rate it to their own beliefs, values and attitudes. Before they make any decisions, they will evaluate consequences.

As mentioned previously, high-risk learners struggle to make sound decisions. McWhirter et al. (1998: 88) mention that it is not that they don't have the information how to generate good solutions, but they do not set constructive and attainable goals. They also do not consider consequences. Their control system usually collapses, because they feel they are controlled by outside forces and cannot shape their own lives.

To help the learner to become aware of the choices and decisions he/she makes the educator can start to focus on situations in his every day life where he/ she must make decisions.

Decision-making skills can be practiced doing the following exercises with the learners.

- Exercise 1: Decisions
- Exercise 2: My decision-making style
- Exercise 3: Problem-solving and decision-making model

Exercise 1: DECISIONS, taken from McConnon et al. (1992: 9-11).

Aim: To help learners become aware of all the choices and decisions they have to make in life.

The learners can think of a typical day in their life.

2.1 The learners can brainstorm all the choices they had to make for the day and write it down on a sheet of paper. They can think of the following:

- What time must they get up in the morning to be on time for school.
- What lunch shall I pack in for school or should I pack in lunch or not.
- What time will I start my homework so that I can have enough leisure time.

2.2 The learners can now complete the Worksheet 5.27, **Decisions**.

The following can be discussed:

- Which decisions were difficult to make?
- How important it is to learn an effective way of making decisions or choices.
- Were there a lot of choices or options to take before a final decision could be made?

The educator can now focus on the importance of making the right choices in life and that this process will always be part of our life. McConnon et al. (1992: 10) emphasize that some choices or decisions are easy to make and comes automatically (e.g. I must tie my shoelace other wise I will fall.). Other decisions are difficult to make and require careful thinking (e.g. What will the consequences be if I storm out of the classroom.). Some decisions are not important, but others can have a major effect on our lives.

Worksheet 5.27 **DECISIONS**

DECISIONS

Name:_____
Date:_____

List ten decisions you make in a typical day.

1._____
2._____
3._____
4._____
5._____
6._____
7._____
8._____
9._____
10._____

Note the two most important decisions:

1._____

2._____

Note the two most difficult decisions

1_____

2_____

I find it difficult to make decisions 1 2 3 4 5 I find it easy to make decisions

I have a lot of choice/ control in my life. 1 2 3 4 5 I have little choice/ control in my life.

Three most important decisions I will have to make in the near future are:

1_____
2_____
3_____

McConnon et al. (1992: 11)

Exercise 2: MY DECISION-MAKING STYLE

Aim: To help learners become aware of their style of making decisions and choices.

Importance of CPS can be emphasized here again and how it influences your decisions. The educator can highlight the issue of verbal prompts during these processes. The issue of logical consequences can also be highlighted.

Although learners are aware that there are daily choices to be made, they must also know how they actually make their decisions. At-risk learners' down fall is their rigid way of thinking and they do not look for alternatives. Through the following exercises the researcher will attempt to improve their ability to way up alternatives before they make a decision like storming out of the classroom if the lesson is not interesting or hitting a learner on the head when passing by.

3.1 The learner can now reflect on a situation where they had to make important decisions and how they came to the final decision. In other words they reflect on their style of decision making.

The following can be discussed:

- Was it easy to make a decision?
- In what situation was it easy and quickly?
- Were you satisfied with the choices or discussions you made?
- Give a reason for your answer.
- If you were not satisfied, explain why.
- Can you determine how you made your choices or decisions?
- Can you think of anything that would have helped you to make better choices?

3.2 Learners can now think about their decision making style by completing Worksheet 5.28, **Which way is best** adapted from McConnon et al. (1992: 13).

Worksheet 5.28 **WHICH WAY IS BEST**

Section A

Make a cross next to the comments that apply to your style of decision making

	I make a decision on how I feel at that moment.		I worry what other people will think about my decisions.
	I ask other people their opinion.		I do whatever my parents advise.
	I can never make up my mind.		I think it through.
	I go along what everyone else thinks.		I toss a coin.
	I just panic.		I trust my instincts.
	I do nothing and hope someone else will make the decision for me.		I gather as much information as possible before making a decision.
	I get confused and cannot think.		It doesn't matter what I think or decide.
	I make a decision to please others.		I just know what is best.
	I keep putting it off.		I weigh up all the pros and cons.

Section B

Rank-order this list of decision making styles from 1 - 5.
The most satisfactory way scores 1.

	Toss a coin and decide.
	Go along what others decide.
	Do nothing but wait and see what happens.
	Make a decision to please others.
	No need to think; just do what feels right.
	Think everything through before making a decision.
	Do the first thing that comes to your head.

Section C

Answer the following:

1. What are the two most effective ways of making decisions?
2. What could be considered as the two most ineffective way of decision making.
3. Is there one best way or should different styles be used to suit different situations? Give examples.
4. What is the meaning of a bad choice or decision?
5. What is the meaning of a good choice or decision?
6. What are the most common mistakes we make when we make choices or decisions?
7. How can we address the bad choices that we make?
8. Is it really so bad to make a bad choice? Motivate.

Adapted from McConnon et al. (1992: 13)

Exercise 3: PROBLEM SOLVING AND DECISION MAKING MODEL adapted from McConnon et al. (1992: 14-15) and McWhirter et al. (1998: 227-228).

Aim: To give learners the skills to make satisfactory decisions and choices.

4.1 The following statements can be written on cards. The learner must explain the task of making decisions by putting the cards in the right order. Certain cards are bogus cards and are not part of making a decision.

The statements are:

- Explain your thinking.
- Inform yourself.
- State the decision to be made.
- Get permission.
- Be clear about what is important to you.
- Consider the risks.
- Make a back-up plan.
- List solutions.
- Check that time is available.
- Think about the advantages/disadvantages.
- Make a decision.

The educator writes on the board the steps to decision-making. The following is a guideline given by McConnon et al. (1992: 15) and McWhirter et al. (1998: 228):

Step 1

Define the problem or describe the situation. Recognize what decision has to be made. The problem can be stated as a goal to be achieved. Questions like "Will my decisions address the problems?"

Step 2

Examine variables. Evaluate the situation and look at all the specifics. Gather information by considering environmental issues, finding out the facts, check with other people, ask opinions, read reports, etc.

It is particularly important to identify feelings and thoughts in this step. When this process is done in a group get opinions and suggestions from others in the group.

Step 3

Consider alternatives: Various means of problem solving are considered. The strengths and weaknesses of each possibility are evaluated. The learner must be clear what is important to him/her. Solutions and decisions will reflect the learner's goals and values. This is also the step that will help the learner to clarify his values in so far as they are relevant to his decision (e.g To wait my turn and show patience is important now, because I disrupt the game and cause conflict every time I kick the ball when it is not my turn.).

Step 4

Isolate a plan: All the alternatives are narrowed down to the best solution or response in that situation. A plan for carrying out this alternative is prepared, and the potential consequences are considered in more detail by considering all the advantages and disadvantages.

Step 5

Do action steps: After a plan is decided upon, action must be taken to implement it. Learners must be supported to carry out their plan. Here they perform the behaviours that make up the solution plan. The behaviour that need to be acquired can be modeled, role played, etc.

Step 6

Evaluate effects: Finally learners need to evaluate effectiveness of the solutions. Teaching them to look for effects of their thoughts and feelings is important. They analyze and evaluate the outcome, review the decision, and if necessary develop another plan to achieve the goal. The emphasis here should be on personal reflection.

4.2 To help learners think logically about their problem or situation the following worksheet adapted from McConnon et al. (1992: 19) Worksheet 5.29, **Making a decision,** can be completed.

Worksheet 5.29 **MAKING A DECISION**

MAKING A DECISION

Name: _____ Date: _____

1. **Define the problem** (What is the decision to be made)

_____

2. **Examine variables** (Inform yourself)

_____
_____
_____

3. **Consider the alternatives** (Be clear what is important to you.)

_____
_____
_____

4. **Develop a plan**

4.1 List solutions **Consequences**

_____ _____
_____ _____
_____ _____

4.2 Think about advantages, disadvantages and outcomes

	Solutions/strategies	Advantages	Disadvantages	Likely outcomes
1.	_____	_____	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____	_____	_____

5. **Do action steps**

- My goal or target behaviour is: _____
- Best solution: _____
- Strategies to attain target behaviour:

1_____

2_____

3 _____

6. Evaluation

6.1 Rate effectiveness according to a of scale 1-10. 1 most effective and 10 least effective.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Used self-control	resisted	No effort put in to reach
Skill effectively	negative behaviour	target behaviour

6.2 Self-management

Strategies that worked for me	Strategies that didn't work for me	Barriers preventing me reaching my target behaviour	Could I manage on my own. Reason	Support I received	Reinforcements /Self-reinforcement / Rewards

Teaching impulsive learners these six steps of problem solving will contribute to more internal locus of control and will help modify self-defeating behaviour. An internal locus of control will enhance the self-esteem, increase a sense of self-efficacy and a resistance to exhibit difficult behaviour.

4.3 To ascertain the progress of a learner, Worksheet 5.30, **Progress chart,** can be completed.

Worksheet 5.30 **PROGRESS CHART**

PROGRESS CHART

1. Skills and strategies I have learned to apply self-control:

2. My Successes:

Skills and strategies that I have implemented	Situation or event	Consequences	What did I gain or learn

3. Learner: The progress I have made:

4. Educator: Report on the learner's progress:

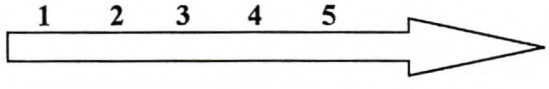
5. Joint agreement on progress that has been made:

6. My rewards for making progress:

7. How will I address my shortcomings:

8. Evaluate yourself on a scale of 1 – 5. 1 not very successful, 3 reasonably successful, and 5 highly successful.

1 2 3 4 5



5.3.3 CENTRAL ISSUE: Anti-social behavior without guilt

5.3.3.1 Understanding the behavior

- Learner's problem

The situation confronting the educator is that the learner is very comfortable with his deviant behaviour and is always justifying his aggressive behaviour. Because they receive so much gratification form exhibiting their deviant behaviour, there is no motivation to change or to give up their power position in the peer group or with adults that they can control. They have no awareness that their behaviour is deviant or pathological. They may assault a peer and justify their behaviour by saying: "He started it" or "I warned him."

In their eyes they are the victims who have been exploited by others and should be protected by adults. Their peer groups give them so much reinforcement that they have a false sense of status and secondary pleasure. They are narcissistic, believe nothing is wrong with them and they rely excessively on aggression, manipulation and exploitation of others (Long & Morse, 1996: 445; Long & Wood, 1991: 205).

- Learner's view of the problem

These learners are ruthless and feel that they should do anything to protect themselves or to take care of themselves, even if it hurts other people. They stand strongly on their rights and believe they have a reputation to maintain. As mention above, they are not open for changes and believe nobody can tell them anything. They have no insight into their actions and when confronted will respond in the following manner: "I will not allow anybody to tell me what to do", "There is nothing wrong with me", I'm ok, but you're messing with me" (Long & Morse, 1996: 445; Long & Wood, 1991: 205).

- **Manifestation of the behaviour**

The problem with anti-social behaviour is that it affects people in many areas of their life. Their behaviour is in conflict with established social standards and values. Educators struggle to cope with their externalizing behaviour, because their behaviour impedes on their teaching. Their apparent remorsefulness is also frustrating to adults. These learners show significant impairment in social and academic areas, because their behaviour interferes with their personal and educational progress.

This central issue is the most challenging to deal with. Walker et al. (1995:1) gives an eloquent description on how challenging anti-social behaviour can be to adults. They regard it as "recurrent violations of socially prescribed patterns of behaviour. Anti-social is the opposite of pro-social, which is composed of cooperative, positive, and mutually reciprocal social behaviour. Anti-social suggests hostility towards others, aggression, a willingness to commit rule infractions, defiance of adult authority, and violation of the social norms and mores of society. This behaviour pattern involves deviation from accepted rules and expected standards governing appropriate behaviour across a range of settings for e.g. home, school, community."

The above definition is a clear indication on how ruthless these learners can be and the impact it can have on themselves, peers and the classroom.

To emphasize how problematic anti-social behaviour could be, Loebner (1993, in Algozzine and Kay, 2002: 13) described three categories that indicate a developmental pathway to chronic patterns of anti-social behaviour. He described them as follows:

- **Overt behaviours** that include aggression, coercion, bullying, manipulation of others, and escalated negative interactions with teachers, parents and peers.
- **Covert behaviours** that include stealing, lying, burglary, and drug and alcohol use.

- **Disobedience** that include noncompliance, oppositional-defiant behaviour, and resistance to adults.

Anti-social behaviour can, therefore, be either overt that involves acts against other people, or covert that involves acts against property and/or self-abuse (Algozinne & Kay, 2002: 12).

In order to explain and describe this difficult behaviour, researchers labeled these learners in many ways. They were regarded as:

- **Conduct Disordered**

The Kronenberger & Meyer (in DSM-IV, 1995: 82) defines conduct disorder as a "repetitive and persistent pattern of behaviour in which the basic rights of others or age-appropriate societal norms or rules are violated." It is believed that these youth tend to act out their anger in violent ways.

- **Oppositional-Defiant Disorder**

The Kronenberger & Meyer (in DSM-IV, 1995: 79) defines oppositional-defiant disorder as a "recurrent pattern of negativistic, defiant, disobedient and hostile behaviour toward authority figures." Characteristics of these learners are that they lose their temper, argues with adults, actively defies or refuses to comply with adult requests or rules, deliberately annoys people, blames others for mistakes or misbehaviour, is touchy or easily annoyed by others, is angry and resentful, is spiteful and vindictive and exhibit provocative behaviour (Boucher, 1999: 107; Kronenberger & Meyer in DSM-IV, 1995: 79).

Children who are oppositional-defiant are sometimes also regarded as socially maladjusted and under- or un-socialized by some professionals (Boucher, 1999: 107; Walker, et al., 1995: 4).

These youth are also, according to Brokenleg et al. (1990: 23) labeled as psychopathic or affectionless, because it appears as if they lack conscience and is seemingly incapable of showing any concern towards others.

Irrespective of how these youth are labeled, they place great constraints on the educator's ability to educate all learners effectively.

According to Long & Fecser (2000: 97) youth exhibiting anti-social behaviour patterns are exhibiting four types of cognitive deficiencies that are based on irrational beliefs that guide their behaviour and the defense mechanisms supporting their behaviour. These cognitive deficiencies act as a shield to protect their feelings and irresponsible behaviour being exposed. These cognitive deficiencies are:

- **They use of self-serving thinking patterns and defenses**

These learners have little or no guilt about their behaviour and, therefore, are not motivated to change it. They are never at fault and because of their excellent verbal skills and attempts to control adults Long & Wood (1991: 205) will rationalize them out of the crisis through alibis and, therefore, appearing to be the victim. They will rationalize about their negative actions for e.g. having been hurt, mistreated by other people and always make people believe that they should get the sympathy, because of unfair treatment.

According to Long & Fecser (2000: 97) the learner will try to "exaggerate the impact of another's remark or behaviour in order to justify extreme retaliation." The learner will

constantly move in the blame frame by using the "He started it" thinking. Their response to adults or cognitive distortions will be as follows:

"It would never have happened if he left me alone!"
"He was staring at me."
"He was calling me names or teasing me."
"He gave me the finger."
"He touched me first."
"He pushed me first."
"He kicked me first."
"He hit me first."

Long & Fecser (2000: 97) also emphasize that by down playing the incident the learner "diminishes the importance of his self-serving behaviour in order to avoid confronting its cruel or excessive nature." The aggressor will very often accuse adults of overreacting. They give the following examples of certain cognitive distortions or of how they would reply when confronted:

"It was a friendly fight."
"We made up; we shook hands; we are friends."
"We were just having fun; playing around."
"I was only kidding; he misinterpreted me."
"I didn't use the stolen object."
'It was an accident."

They actively defy rules and directiveness by justifying that no one would have done it if they didn't take action. Long & Fecser (2000: 97) make us aware that they adopt self-serving thinking patterns by assuming that the adult is not able enough to interpret the situation adequately. This justifies the notion to take matters in their own hands. This

learner will also make his own assumption of how a situation or event will turn out in order to justify their actions.

Their thoughts can be described as follows:
"No one would have done it."
"I'll have to solve the problem even if I have to take the law into my own hands."
"I don't have to tell staff, because I know they would not have done anything."
"I'm not a baby; I don't run to my mother; I can solve my own problems."
"I have a right to take care of my self."

Many of these learners refuse to recognize that they have a problem, or see themselves as the cause of the problem, but rather externalizing blame for their behaviour and justify the use of revenge. They see the tough spots they find themselves in as flaws in other people. To prove their innocence they will lie or pretend that the incidence was no big deal (Wood & Long, 1991: 205-207; Kronenberger & Meyer in DSM-IV, 1995: 85-86). Redl (1966, in Long & Wood, 1991: 207) agrees with the above argument and is of the opinion that these youth "have learned to benefit from their symptoms (behaviour) through secondary gains, are therefore, in no way inclined to accept an adult's idea that something is wrong with them, or they need help."

- **They lack normal feelings of compassion towards others.**

Children showing signs of anti-social behaviour are very intolerant, have severe temper tantrums and have a low frustration tolerance. They are constantly in power struggles and have no regard for the other person's feelings. Because there is a lack of empathy, they show no remorse when they steal from others, hurt other people or destroy other people's property. Over the years they have developed the art of blocking out all emotions and shut out the world (Kronenberger & Meyer in DSM-IV, 1995: 80-81; Boucher, 1999: 57-59; Long & Fecser, 2000: 95; Brokenleg, et al., 1990: 8).

It is hard for them to establish meaningful relationships, because of their lack of trust and their inability to maintain or build interpersonal relationships. Peers normally reject them, because of their risk-taking and impulsive behaviours. They will normally associate with friends with conduct problems who will feel comfortable with their manipulation, deceitfulness and lying. This rejection will often lead to a low self-esteem that they will hide by trying to control others (Kronenberger & Meyer in DSM-IV, 1995: 82; Boucher, 1999: 60).

Their inability to form friendships and mutually supportive relationships stem from the fact that they are self-absorbed in their need and failure to see others as separate personalities. They devalue other people, because of their urge to be in control. Because they have suffered such a lot in the past, they have a tendency to displace anger by manipulating and controlling others.

- **They are self-centered, narcissistic, and rigidly proud.**

These learners begin most interactions by focusing on their needs, first and always. If their needs are not met, they refuse to discontinue any discussion concerning their behaviour. They are also driven by their wishes and impulses instead by reasoning and consequences. There is little appreciation for planning, studying and acquiring academic skills as factors in success for e.g. studying or work are boring. There are better things to do (Henley and Long, 1999: 226).

These learners have unrealistic expectations and will always strive for power. According to Boucher (1999: 64) the individual with narcissistic tendencies develops an "inflated or grandiose sense of self" which is reinforced by peers. They show extremely negative reactions to criticism, have an overblown sense of importance and belief that their problems are unique. Long & Fecser (2000: 95) also regard them as self-centered with rigid pride, and constantly wants to be praised. They want instant gratification. Their formula for success relies on having good luck (gambling), having powerful

friends who can give them status, and being important by maintaining a reputation and being respected by peers." These self-centeredness and sense of self-importance is the cause of their inability to recognize how others feel. They deny any feelings that contradict their desired image. Relationships that are formed are for one purpose only and that is, what Boucher (1999: 65) called "self-aggrandizement".

- **They believe personal aggression creates power and status.**

Long & Fecser (2000: 95) regard them as "sensation seekers" to get what they want they will act impulsively and has no regard for limits. Solitude is painful, because it can lead to depressing thoughts. Boucher (1999: 67) emphasizes that without a "good sense of boundaries they do what feels good at the moment." They know how to intimidate others and how to maintain their peer status through fear. They delight in threatening other and enjoy seeing others defeated (compare Henley and Long, 1999: 126).

Their greatest weakness is fear for not being in control and they will fake how they feel just to keep up the image they want to portray. They don't worry about the future, because they believe, according to Henley and Long (1999: 126) "life must turn out the way I want it to be. If I don't get what I want, then it's unfair. I will take what I need, and others will have to pay the price for frustrating me."

- **Rejects the feedback from adults**

The inability to bond with an adult is detrimental to the positive development and growth of these youth. They are always attempting to control adults in stead of making them part of the educational process. Because they are suspicious, antagonistic or fearful, they have difficulty believing adults care and have the ability to meet their basic needs." This makes them unreliable and immune to forming trusting relationships. They will reject an adult's suggestion for change and accept their view that they are creating

the problems. Adults generally make the mistake by moralizing and criticizing their behaviour in stead of just giving them their fervent love (Brokenleg, et al., 1990: 8-10).

The LSCI place a great emphasis on creating insight before intervention can take place. Because this central issue is so challenging, it is of the utmost importance that the intervention is based on appeal to reason, the avoiding of moralizing, but clearly conveying the disapproval of the behaviour.

5.3.3.2 Outcomes of the intervention

- To let the learner have some understanding in their behaviour and motivation to change their behaviour.
- To create some cognitive dissonance by "dropping a pebble of a new idea into their stagnant pool of thought" (Long & Fecser 2000: 93) and to let them realize that their actions are not as clever as they believe it to be.
- To confront the learner by revealing his inner feelings of enjoying the reactions, discomfort and confusion of others.
- To instill some feelings of guilt and remorse, and to show empathy towards others.
- To develop self-awareness.
- To make them realize that their behaviour is thoughtless and unkind, and that it gets them in trouble.
- To make him realize that aggression is an unacceptable way to deal with people who upset you (Long & Wood, 1991: 206-209; Long & Fecser, 2000: 93).

5.3.3.3 Aim of the intervention

The aim is to make the learner uncomfortable with the behaviour he is displaying by; according to Long & Wood (1991: 205) "confronting the rationalizations, decoding the self-serving narcissism and distorted pleasure the student receives from the

unacceptable behaviour, and to raise his anxiety levels." As mentioned previously, this learner has a low self-esteem and will try to protect his feelings from being revealed.

The challenge will be, according to Long & Fecser (2000: 93) to let the learner think that he is tricking himself that it is fine to take the law into his own hands. If they can convince themselves that it is fine, they can be cruel, or hurt others, steal, and so forth. Educators must try to "expose their self-deception slowly while also maintaining a caring relationship."

The above authors suggest that educators must make these learners realize that they are too clever to continue their self-defeating behaviour and which they will be confronted every time they try to justify their aggression.

5.3.3.4 Learner's new insight

The learner must realize that his display of deviancy is not as clever as he thought it would be. He is not getting the desired results and benefits he expected to get.

He must gain insight in his cruelty and that it is wrong to hurt other people. The learner must be aware that he will pay a price for his deception and that there will be dire consequences like being restricted, lose freedom of choices, movements will be limited, etc. (Long & Wood, 1991: 205; Long & Fecser, 2000: 93).

5.3.3.5 Approach to start the process

The focus, according to Long & Wood (1991: 205) should be on "adult autonomy, power and judgement" to lead the learner to insight. This can be done by benignly confronting the learner with his self- serving patterns and actions. Important for the educator, although very difficult, is not to become counter-aggressive. These learners who are so comfortable with and find their behaviour very pleasing without showing

signs of remorse or guilt can easily draw the educator into the conflict cycle and they get caught up in a power struggle. The idea is to keep the communication open with the learner, but show disapproval of the behaviour.

Long & Fecser (2000: 99) give the following benign confrontational strategies to use with the learners exhibiting anti-social behaviour:

- The interviewer must have some positive feelings toward conduct disorder learners.
- The interviewer must manage his own counter-aggression feelings, because the learner's apparent lack of guilt can provoke a punitive response.
- When possible and realistic:
- Acknowledge and affirm his feelings not behaviour.
- Note, acknowledge and affirm any positive statements.
- Affirm any improved behaviour – note, some progress made.
- Work with his narcissism; note intelligence, planning skills, etc.
- Identify the learner's basic justification for aggressive behaviour e.g. "He started it".
- Think why he is bringing in "the law of the street" in the classroom.
- Be compassionate – Reflect on how the "law of the street" allows him to be hurtful without feeling guilty.
- Suggest a thought that apart of him gets some pleasure out of being hurtful.
- Suggest of how this is a form of cruelty and unacceptable way of living.
- Emphasize how he is too smart to trick (deceive) himself into believing that it is okay to assault someone and then say it was the other learner's fault.
- Have him think about what you have said.
- Tell him that you have learned something helpful about him.
- If you have a significant relationship with him, indicate that you know that he was hit, beaten as a kid and he knows how it feels to be a victim.
- Summarizing by highlighting his self-defeating behaviour, e.g. irrational beliefs; and your plan to help him.

5.3.3.6 Skills learners need

- Accepting Responsibility
- Self-awareness

The educator must realize that to teach these learners the necessary skills they need are no easy task and that the whole process is slow and arduous.

This requires of the learner to be able to manage consequences that will inevitably be part of negative behaviour.

The skills that these learners lack could be:

- Compassion and self-control which are the basis of emotional intelligence (Henley & Long, 1999: 224)
- Empathy towards others and failure to interpret the feelings of others
- No focus on consequences and to take responsibility

Compassion cannot be taught in a conventional way. To enhance compassion with learners who resist change, educators should facilitate the process through role play, discussions, use cooperative learning strategies, psycho-drama, etc.

5.3.3.6.1 Accepting consequences

An important strategy is to teach these learners the meaning of the concept consequences. They must realize what effect their behaviour will have on themselves and others. The implementation of this strategy was discussed earlier in this chapter in detail.

A preferred way of teaching this concept to the delinquent learner is to let the learners brainstorm or discuss it in a group. The learner will hear other viewpoints and hear how other people think and feel about certain situations. As Long & Fecser (2000: 93) emphasized, we want to "drop a pebble of a new idea in their stagnant pool of thoughts".

5.3.3.6.2 Taking responsibility

The educator cannot try to change the learner by enforcing compliance. The seeds for change are within themselves. These youth do have excellent skills like verbal skills, reasoning skills, etc. The focus should be on their strengths rather than trying to attend to their weaknesses. The learner must control his own learning by demonstrating responsibility.

The key to teaching responsibility, according to Henley & Long (1999: 226) is prevention. Unfortunately, according to the authors, we are dealing with youth who had thirteen or more years to develop these self-defeating patterns of behaviour. It will be difficult to remediate this behaviour. As mentioned previously, the strategy should be to confront the learner in a benign and supportive way, while also creating some anxiety about his behaviour.

As mentioned earlier, the delinquent learner refuses to take responsibility for their behaviour. Educators on the other hand want their learners to be responsible citizens. At-risk learners find it very difficult to act responsible. It is challenging to clarify the concept of responsibility to these learners. Phillips (1998: 34) is of the opinion that educators should make the concept of responsibility "more palatable" to these learners if they want to see changes. Again it must be emphasized that these learners value their personal freedom and will look for ways to keep a door open. If the educators expect

them to be good and to be responsible, they will interpret it as doing what someone else expect of them or wants them to do.

Phillips (1998: 34) suggests that one must reframe the behaviour that you want from them as being "powerful behaviour". By doing this, one puts them "in charge of their own actions, which they aspire to it, because it will match their core value of needing to be free than controlled by someone else." The author stresses that learners should learn not to blame every one else when they are in a conflict situation. By doing this, they "give away their power." If they are again in the same situation, nobody will show empathy and they will end up as a victim without power.

The following summary illustrates how this strategy to accept responsibility for their actions can be taught to learners.

A SUMMARY OF THE SELF-DEFEATING BEHAVIOUR: ANTI-SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR WITHOUT GUILT

STRATEGY 1: Accepting Responsibility
Rationale: Delinquent learners refuse to take responsibility for their self-defeating behaviour. The rationale for this strategy is to put learners in charge of their own behaviour and guide them to take responsibility for their actions. By teaching them responsibility they develop the ability to make their own decisions in a responsible manner.

PAGE	TOPICS	AIM	ACTIVITY	SUMMARY
343	Exercise: Taking Responsibility	To teach learners to take responsibility for their actions.	Analysing a poem.	-The poem is read through with the learners. Music is played to provide the right atmosphere. **Focus of poem** -Character displays role of victim. -Dysfunctional behaviour is emphasized -Highlight insight of character in self-destructive behaviour by taking responsibility for his behaviour. -Compare behaviour of character to real life situation of learner. -Confront learner with his dysfunctional behaviour in a benign way. -If learner shows insight, alternative options to his actions are worked through with learner. -Emphasize consequences.

Phillips (1998: 34-36) suggests that the concept responsibility can be taught in the following way:

Exercise: TAKING RESPONSIBILITY

Aim: To teach learners to take responsibility for their actions.

Learners read the **Autobiography in Five Short Chapters by Portia Nelson**. This exercise is adapted from Phillips (1998: 34-36).

AUTOBIOGRAPHY IN FIVE SHORT CHAPTERS

Portia Nelson

(1) I walk down the street.
There is a deep hole in the sidewalk.
I fall in.
I am lost.... I am hopeless.
IT WASN'T MY FAULT.

(2) I walk down the same street.
There is a deep hole in the sidewalk.
I pretend I don't see it.
I fall in again.
I can't believe I am in the same place.
BUT IT ISN'T MY FAULT.
It still takes along time to get out.

(3) I walk down the street.
There is a deep hole in the sidewalk.
I see it is there.
I still fall in.... It's a habit.
My eyes are open.
I know where I am.
IT IS MY FAULT.
I get out immediately.

(4) I walk down the same street.
There is a deep hole in the sidewalk.
I walk around it.

(5) I walk down the street

Phillips (1998: 35)

1.1 Read the poem to the learners. It is important that the poem is read with feeling and with the necessary expressions. Play suitable music in the background and let each learner read the poem then on its own. Explain the title to the learners.

1.2 Ask the following questions:

- What is happening in each verse.
- With what problem is the character confronted with?
- How is the character dealing with the problem in each verse?
- Is the person really falling into a hole?
  Explain the symbolic meaning of the title and that the person is not really falling into a hole.
- If the character is not really falling into a hole, what is then happening?
  Explain that the character is doing something that was "dysfunctional" and that it is causing problems.
- Determine in which verses the person can be regarded as a victim.
- Which verse can be regarded as a more powerful part and why? Learners will for instance explain it is the verse when the person realizes what he is doing wrong.
- Determine what the victim line is. Here they will say "It isn't my fault".
- Determine the power line. The answer will be "It is my fault".
- Play devils advocate and ask how it can be the character's fault if he didn't dig the hole. They could explain that the person was dumb enough to keep walking straight ahead at first and falling in, instead of looking for another way to go.

1.3 Analyze the word "fault". Explore or let the learners brainstorm the negative connotations that could be attributed to the word. An example could be that it is a "blaming word".

- Learners can brainstorm positive substitutes for the word "fault".

Examples must have the following focus:

- Words that show that the character is more in control or have power.

- Assuming responsibility for that you can do to make things turn out well.

1.4 What can one learn from this poem?

It is smarter to look for what you can do in any situation instead of looking for what you can't control.

1.5 Review several real life situations or case studies to discuss and to role play. Role play the situation that caused a crisis and confronts the learner in a benign way where he chose to be a victim, rather than being powerful. Look at options the learner chose and what was the consequence of that option.

- Refer back to the poem and the symbolic meaning of it. Problems occur because the character kept on doing something that was "dysfunctional".
- Refer to the crisis and help him to explain how his dysfunctional behaviour caused problems. Guide the learner to draw comparisons between his behaviour and that of the character in the poem.
- Brainstorm with the learner suggestions to alternative options to get a more positive outcome. Write the options down.
- Return to the various options and determine the consequence of each choice. Continue with this process until the learner realizes how he can dramatically affect the outcome of a situation, even one which wasn't his fault.

The learner must realize that he can become powerful if he can determine and anticipate consequences ahead, determine how they can ensure positive outcomes, instead of blaming others. By doing this learners move away from a reactive way of doing things where they are the victim who blames everybody else to a powerful position where they "take charge of their lives and realize the choices they have (Phillips, 1998: 37).

5.3.3.6.3 SELF-AWARENESS

The best way to confront the anti-social learner in a benign way is to make him aware of how others view him.

The following summary gives an explanation of how educators can create self-awareness by the anti-social learners that has difficulty to experience some guilt.

STRATEGY 2: Self-awareness
Rationale: The rationale is to make learners aware that their behaviour is socially unacceptable and others regard it as such, because it has a damaging effect on relationships with other people. The learner will be guided to gain insight on the impact his/her behaviour has on others by understanding his/her behaviour and needs better. They do not understand that they behave incorrectly in certain situations.

PAGE	TOPICS	AIM	ACTIVITY	SUMMARY
353	Exercise 1: My self-discovery tree	To help learners to determine their strengths and weaknesses and to discover who they are.	-Learners get pictures of different trees. -Discuss the functions of each tree. -Learners compare themselves to different trees. - Draw a tree that depicts the learner's personality.	-The educator can show the learners pictures of different trees. - He guides the learner to make comparisons between himself and the tree e.g. If birds make like to make a nest in the tree, the educator can ask if friends also like him. -The idea is to make him aware of his good points, but also to start confronting him in a benign way about his negative behaviour.
354	Exercise 2: Discotheque	To make learners aware of how others see them and that their behaviour does not go unnoticed.	-Worksheet 5.31 Discotheque -Card game -Self-assessment -Worksheet 5.32 Is This Me (Significant Others), 5.33 Is This Me (Learner) and 5.34 Is This Me! A Comparison.	-The educator attempts to bring some insight by the learner by showing him how others view him. -The group identifies with a character on the worksheet. -Each learner matches a character with a learner in the group. Reasons for his choice will be discussed in the group. -Highlight how members of the group see him differently as he/she did.

				Discuss the reasons for this. Real life situations can be used by the group as an example for e.g. when a learner was in a fight, they can describe how they perceived the role of the learner in that fight. -Discuss if learner is agreeing with group or not. -The impact of the learner's behaviour on himself and others are discussed. -Learner's behaviour is assessed by himself and others for e.g. is he sociable, aggressive or honest, etc. -The different views and their assessment is discussed. -Explore feelings of learner to look for signs of remorse and insight. Use the feelings vocabulary chart. -Educator can introduce empathy skills at this level. It will make him further aware how his behaviour affects the feelings of others and that he is fooling himself if he thinks he feels good after his destructive actions. -Explore situations where he displayed the self-defeating behaviour as identified by the group or the educator. -Show him the consequences of his behaviour.

363	Exercise 3: Liked and Disliked	To help the learner to make the right choices by emphasizing the consequences of his destructive behaviour.	Brainstorm -Group discussion Worksheet 5.35, Liked and Disliked -Invite a person from the community who made profound changes in his life to better himself	-The learner identifies a person and evaluates positive and negative qualities of that person. -Discuss why certain people are liked and others not. -Learners discuss what kind of person they would like to be by ranking the various characteristics as listed. -Examples of how various people act and behave can be given and discussed. -Discuss how people can change their behaviour and attitudes to become a better person and well liked. The idea is to tap into the delinquents conscious. -a person from the community who has changed his life can be invited to come and talk to the learners. -Make learners involve in a community project.

366	Exercise 4: Success	To make learner aware of their past, their behaviour in the present and how they should look at themselves in the future.	Brainstorm -Group discussion -Worksheet 5.36 Succeed -Design a poster -Evaluation	-If insight is shown and there is genuine remorse, the educator starts to look at ways to deal with future behaviour. -The educator guides the learner to realize how he can have a successful life. -Together goals are determined and ways to achieve it is discussed. -Use strengths in a positive way. -The learner brainstorm with the educator on what is needed to be a successful person. -Each learner designs a poster about himself to explain what success means to him and how he will achieve it. - The learner reflects on his behaviour towards others and the changes that took place. -The learner evaluates himself on a scale of 1-5.
368	Exercise 5: Relationship Goals	To help the learner to set goals by confronting him/her with his/her behaviour.	-Discussion -Worksheet 5.37 Relationship goals -Worksheet 5.38 Growth goals	-The educator and the learner reflect on his relationship with his peers and adults. -Self-reflection is also advised. -Educator exposes his destructive behaviour in a benign way. -The learner chooses two things that he should address to change his behaviour. -Goals are set to achieve the desired outcome

372	Exercise 6: Setting Goals	To help learners to commit themselves to a goal and a plan to achieve this.	-Discussion -Worksheet 5.39, Setting Goals	-The stages how to achieve goals are explained. -The support system during the process is worked through. -Determine with the learner how success will be celebrated.
374	Exercise 7: Developing a contract	To help learners to keep a commitment and to develop a sense of responsibility.	- Discussion - Worksheet 5.40, Draw up a contract	-The educator explains what is meant when one signs a contract. -The reason for drawing up a contract is explained to the learner. -The learner should be made aware what the logical consequences will be if he breaks the contract.

To teach learners to become aware of how damaging their socially unacceptable behaviour is, the following exercises can be done:

- Exercise 1: My self-discovery tree
- Exercise 2: Discotheque
- Exercise 3: Liked and disliked
- Exercise 4: Success
- Exercise 5: Relationship goals
- Exercise 6: Setting goals
- Exercise 7: Developing a contract

Exercise 1: MY SELF-DISCOVERY TREE (Sunday Times, 13 April 2003: 8).

Aim: To help learners to determine their strengths and weaknesses and to discover who they are.

1.1 Show learners pictures of various trees for e.g. Jacaranda, Lemon, Thorn trees, etc.
- Discuss the various parts of the tree, for e.g. the leaves, bark, roots
- Discuss which trees bear fruit and which trees not.
- Ask learners to think of themselves as trees. They must think of what hind of tree they think they would be.

1.2 Guide the learner by asking the following questions:
- What is the function of your tree? Does the tree bear fruit or does it give shade.
- If you are a helpful person, your tree will bear fruit.
- If you are a protective person, you would be a tree with lots of leaves to provide shade.
- Do birds nest in your branches? (Do other people like your company?).

- Are your leaves, bark or flowers poisonous? (How do you manage when people are hurtful towards you?).
- Are insects eating your bark? (If so, what is hurting you and causing you unhappiness?).
- Do you have thorns that irritate you? (What problems do these thorns represent?).
- Do you shed your leaves during winter? (Do you react differently in varying situations?).
- What are leaves and flowers like? (Do you accept yourself as you are?).
- What kind of root system do you have? (Roots represent the values that anchor you.).
- How often do you need sun, water and fertilizer. (Do you mostly rely on yourself or others to fulfill your needs?).
- Do you have to be pruned? If yes, have you been pruned already (i.e. what experiences have taught you valuable lessons)?
- Use your answers to determine what kind of tree you are.

1.3 Each learner draws his/her own tree and labels it appropriately.

1.4 Group discussion or individual discussions with the educator can take place.

Exercise 2: DISCOTHEQUE, adapted from McConnon (1990: 20-21).

Aim: To make learners make aware how others see them and that their behavior does not go unnoticed.

2.1 Give the learners the Worksheet 5.31 **Discotheque.**

- Each learner decides on the character he best identifies with or which character best represents him/herself. They write their initials in red by this character.
- Without discussion, each learner studies the characters and tries to identify those who best represent the members in the group or class.
- Learners then place the initials of the other group members beside the identified

characters. Use a different colour to write the initials. More than one set of initials may appear by each character.

2.2 Group discussion

- Each member tells the group where he/she put him/herself and why.
- The group discusses each member in the group and every body explains where they have put that focal person and why.
- This process continuous until each member of the group had the opportunity to be a focal person.
- Learners should not be forced to take part and can pass.

2.3 Each learner circles the character he/she would like to be.

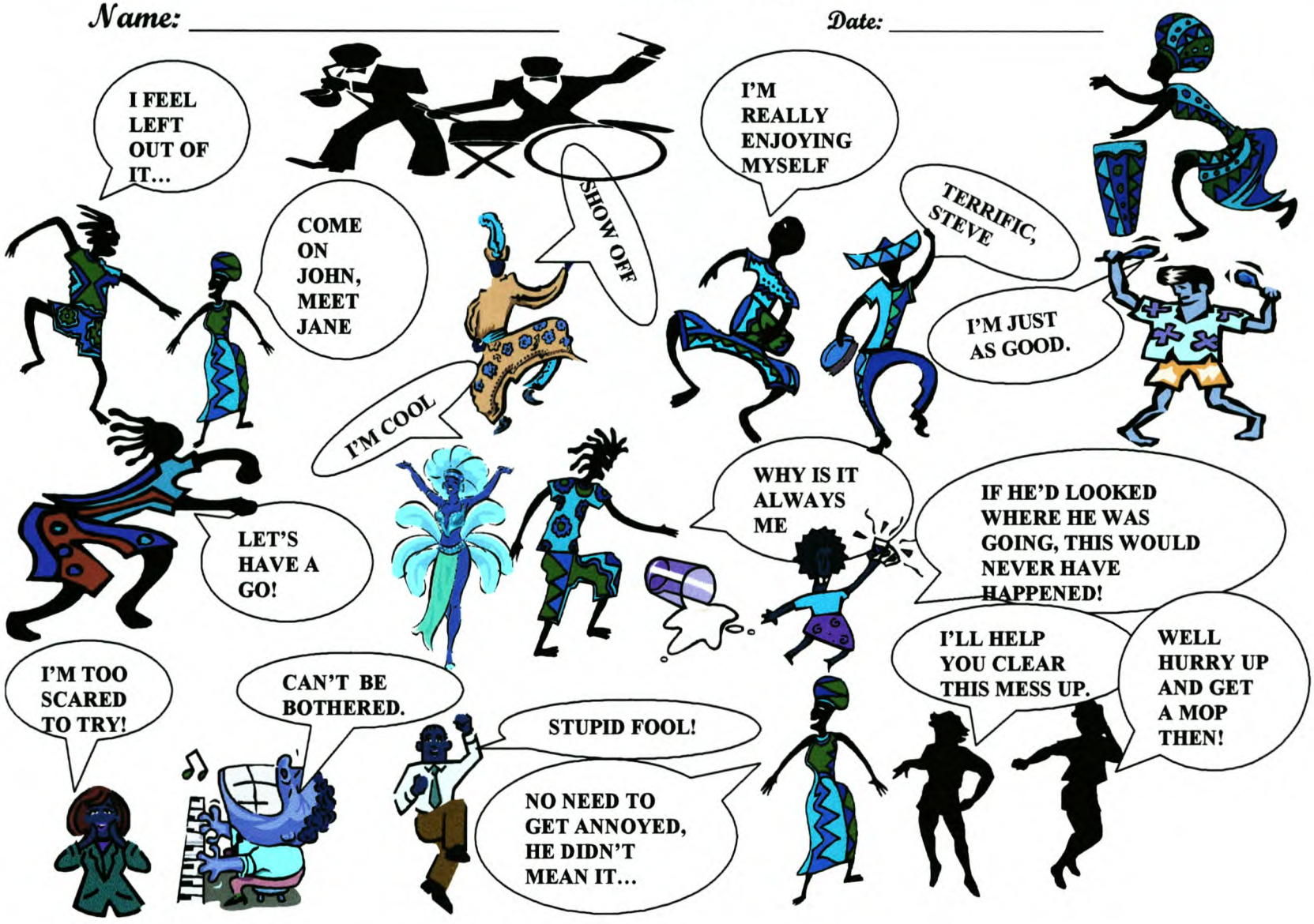
- With the help of the partner or during a different session with the educator learners think of two things they can do to become the person they would like to be.

The following can be discussed:

- Do other people see themselves as others see them? If so, why?
- Were learners surprised at how others see them?
- Do they agree the way others see them? Discuss with the anti-social learner the reasons the group members gave for seeing him/her in that light. Analyze behaviour if situations or events were given as part of examples. This is an opportunity to make them aware of their self-defeating behaviour and that it does not go unnoticed by his/her peers or adults. He/she fools him/herself that they will get away with their behaviour. Show them how their behaviour leads to negative consequences and how it impacts on themselves and others.
- Is it important to have an accurate picture of yourself? Why?

DISCOTHEQUE

Name: _____ **Date:** _____



McConnon (1990: 26)

2.4 Peer Evaluation

The following words can be written on different cards:

Unreliable	Sporty	Punctual	Always complaining
Kind	Bad-tempered	Adventurous	Considerate
Noisy	Talented	Outspoken	Honest
Impatient	Jealous	Forgetful	Obedient
Thoughtful	Loyal	Sociable	Trustworthy
Tries hard	Careful	Name-caller	Aggressive
Cheerful	Humorous	Listens well	Tease
Responsible	Popular	Sensitive	Co-operative
Hard-working	Quiet	Fun	Leader
Boastful	Confident	Happy	Cheeky
Talkative	Tolerant	Generous	Reliable
Friendly	Affectionate	Lazy	Sulky
Brave	Patient	Rude	Disobedient
Worried	Careless	Argumentative	Helpful
Silly	Fair	Shy	Polite
Sad	Snobbish	Moody	Bossy

Each learner takes a card from the top and give it to the learner they think it suits best. They must give a reason for their choice. In this exercise honesty in their choice of cards should be encouraged and a reason for giving them. Encourage the learners to be specific with their reasons, e.g. "Last week you were thoughtful to Jane when you ...

2.5 Self-assessment

The learners assess themselves through a list of personal characteristics and they check this against an assessment by others.

2.5.1 Significant people in the life of the learner assess him by completing Worksheet 5.32 **Is this me (significant others)** taken from McConnon (1990: 28).

2.5.2 The learner assesses himself by completing Worksheet 5.33 **Is this me (learner)** taken from McConnon (1990: 29).

2.5.3 The learner completes Worksheet 5.34 **Is this me! A comparison** (McConnon, 1990: 28), to determine how his assessment of himself differs from the other people.

If the learner's self-assessment differ significantly with how the other people view him/her, the educator can discuss the following:

- Why he/she views him/herself differently.
- What could the reasons be for their different views.
- High light also positive characteristics that were ticked off.
- Discuss the reasons for them attributing those positive qualities.
- Explain how you felt by every one's assessment. Discuss every assessment individually. Explore feelings and signs of insight or remorse. The feelings chart can be shown and discuss. The notion of showing empathy as discussed under peer manipulation can be worked through if the educator sees the need for it.
- Refer back to the card game. What went through your mind when you did the round robin in the group?
- Can you think of a situation where you displayed those qualities or characteristics?

- What was the outcome of your actions during that event?
  How did it affect you?
- How did it affect the other people involved?

If the learner starts to show remorse for his actions and you are confident that there is a trusting relationship determine the learner's underlying needs as discussed in chapter three. The educator can make him aware of how he/she brings in the law of the street to deal with situations. And with the learner determines why he/she is doing it. A plan can be worked out how he/she is going to act or treat others in the future. Thinking skills as discussed under the impulsive learner can be worked through with the learner.

Worksheet 5.32 IS THIS ME? (SIGNIFICANT OTHERS)

Name: _____ Date: _____

	Nearly always	About half the time	Now and then
Helpful			
Honest			
Jealous			
Noisy			
Reliable			
Lazy			
Tidy			
Popular			
Clean			
Kind			
Selfish			
Dull			
Friendly			
Shy			
Lonely			
Polite			
Talkative			
Happy			
Aggressive			
Good sport			

McConnon (1990: 28)

Worksheet 5.33

IS THIS ME (LEARNER)

	Nearly always	About half the time	Now and then
Helpful			
Honest			
Jealous			
Noisy			
Reliable			
Lazy			
Tidy			
Popular			
Clean			
Kind			
Selfish			
Dull			
Friendly			
Shy			
Lonely			
Polite			
Talkative			
Happy			
Aggressive			
Good sport			

McConnon (1990: 29)

Worksheet 5.34

IS THIS ME? A COMPARISON

Name: _____ Date: _____

HOW I SEE MYSELF				HOW OTHERS SEE ME				HOW I"D LIKE TO BE			
	Nearly always	About half the time	Now and then		Nearly always	About half the time	Now and then		Nearly always	About half The time	Now and then
Helpful				Helpful				Helpful			
Honest				Honest				Honest			
Jealous				Jealous				Jealous			
Noisy				Noisy				Noisy			
Reliable				Reliable				Reliable			
Lazy				Lazy				Lazy			
Tidy				Tidy				Tidy			
Popular				Popular				Popular			
Clean				Clean				Clean			
Kind				Kind				Kind			
Selfish				Selfish				Selfish			
Dull				Dull				Dull			
Friendly				Friendly				Friendly			
Shy				Shy				Shy			
Lonely				Lonely				Lonely			
Polite				Polite				Polite			
Talkative				Talkative				Talkative			
Happy				Happy				Happy			
Aggressive				Aggressive				Aggressive			
Good sport				Good sport				Good sport			

The three things I 'd like people to be able to say about me are:

1._____ 2._____ 3._____

Exercise 3: LIKED AND DISLIKED. Adapted from McConnon (1990: 32-34)

Aim: To help the learner to make the right choices by emphasizing the consequences of his/her destructive behavior.

The learners must evaluate positive and negative qualities and personality types. They must decide why some people are liked and others not. This could help them to make choices and decide on "The person "I'd like to be". The learner must justify why he made certain choices by giving reasons and examples of life situations.

3.1 Give each learner the Worksheet 5.35 **Liked and disliked** (McConnon, 1990: 33-34).

Learners read through section A and do the following:

- Read through the various characteristics listed and give examples how these people act and behave. The educator can expand the list.
- Each learner rank orders this list and enters the results in the Personal Column. The characteristic considered the most likeable scores 1 and the least likeable scores 10.
- The learner forms pairs and do the same with his partner. They must agree on the scores.

3.2 Do the same with Section B.

3.3 Discuss the following in the group:

- What type of person is generally liked?
- What type of person is generally not liked?
- Why is this?
- Can people change in behaviour and attitude to become popular or better liked?
- What does this require of the person?
- What famous people do we know who have changed or reformed. Here the

class can decide on a person to come and talk to the class on how he/she changed his/her life and how is he/she managing his/her life at the moment.

- Talk about somebody they admire.

Worksheet 5.35

LIKED and DISLIKED

Section A

Name:_____ Date: _____

Characteristics	Personal	Pairs
COURAGOUS (daring, adventurous, and not afraid)		
SENSITIVE (kind, thoughtful, aware of people's feelings)		
PATIENT (tolerant and understanding)		
GENEROUS (shares willingly with others)		
CHEERFUL (happy and contended)		
ORGANIZED (looks ahead, plans and achieve goals)		
LOYAL (stands by friends and can be trusted)		

Rank order these characteristics from 1 to 10. The characteristic you think most likeable scores 10.
Adapted from McConnon (1990:33)

SECTION B: DISLIKED

Personality types	Personal	Pairs
NAME-CALLER (likes to tease)		
BORROWER (always asking for something, seldom return things)		
JOKER (everything's a joke, always messing around)		
BOASTER (always talking about themselves: "I'm the greatest."		
BULLY (picks on others, makes people's lives miserable)		
LAYABOUT (doesn't like work, usually careless)		
CHEAT (dishonest, unreliable, can't be trusted)		

Rank order this list of personality types from 1 to 10. The person you would least want to be like score 1.
Adapted from McConnon (1990: 34)

Exercise 4: SUCCESS, adapted from McConnon (1990: 30-31)

Aim: To make learners aware of their past, their present behavior and how they should look at themselves in the future.

The idea of this exercise is to make the learners aware of their past, their behaviour in the present and how they are looking at themselves in the future. The future means to decide on life goals and how to achieve it. The main focus will be to make them aware that they can achieve success by using the positive qualities in a positive way.

4.1 The groups brainstorm what is needed to be a successful person. One person reports back. It could be that they mainly focus on fame, money, status, etc. Direct their thoughts also on attitudes, personal relationships, positive socializing, etc.

4.2 Each group fill in the Worksheet 5.36 **Succeed.** This can be done individually and discussed in the group. Important is that the educator includes the anti-social learner in the group activities to hear how other people think and behave.

4.3 Each person can make a poster of him/herself to explain what success means to him and how he will achieve it. The educator can specify what categories he/she wants the learner to touch on.
The poster can be displayed and later become part of the portfolio.

Worksheet 5.36

SUCCEED

Name: _____ Date: _____

List below what you think is important in making a success of life (in rank order):

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____

Complete these sentences:

My successes are _____

I would like to be more successful in _____

Strategies I need to implement to ensure success are _____

_____

Successful people are _____

I shall probably make a success of my life because _____

_____

Rate yourself on this continuum line to show how you feel now

Highly successful 1____2_____3_____4_____5 Not so successful

Adapted from McConnon (1990: 31)

Exercise 5: RELATIONSHIP GOALS

Aim: Help the learner to set goals by confronting him/her with his/her behaviour. These exercises are private and should only be discussed with the educator.

The learner must complete the Worksheet 5.37 **Relationship goals** adapted from McConnon (1990: 37).

Worksheet 5.37 **RELATIONSHIP GOALS**

Name: _____ Date: _____

Section A	Always	Usually	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Am I always cheerful?					
Do I offer to help others?					
Do I argue?					
Can I keep a secret?					
Do I listen really well?					
Do I say good things about people?					
Do I blame others easily?					
Am I interested in what other people say?					
Do I tease or belittle people?					
Do I get angry when I don't get my way?					
Do I force people to do things for me?					
Do I hurt other people's feelings?					
Do you admit when you are wrong?					
Am I an aggressive person?					
When I am angry I attack people verbally.					
When I am angry I attack people physically.					

Section B

List two things that will make you a better person:

_____

_____

Adapted from McConnon (1990: 37)

Learner completes Worksheet 5.38 **My pesonal growth goals** adapted from McConnon (1990: 41).

Worksheet 5.38

MY PERSONAL GROWTH GOALS

Mark on the scale the spot that is closest to how you feel about yourself.

I find it difficult to make friends	1__2___3___4___5	I make friends easily
I often loose my temper	1__2___3___4___5	I seldom loose my temper
I never apologize or say sorry	1__2___3___4___5	I often apologize and say sorry
I don't get on well at home	1__2___3___4___5	I get well on well at home
I seldom get embarrassed	1__2___3___4___5	I get embarrassed easily
I seldom get moody	1__2___3___4___5	I often get moody
I am lazy	1__2___3___4___5	I am hard working
I lead my own life	1__2___3___4___5	I am easily influenced by others
I am dull to be with	1__2___3___4___5	I am fun to be with
People don't like me	1__2___3___4___5	People like me
I never fidget	1__2___3___4___5	I fidget a lot
I like the way I look	1__2___3___4___5	I don't like the way I look
I'm always in trouble	1__2___3___4___5	I never get into trouble
I consider others	1__2___3___4___5	I always want my way

List two things you would like to improve on:

My personal growth goals:

1._____

2._____

McConnon (1990: 41)

Exercise 6: SETTING GOALS

Aim: To help learners commit themselves to a goal and a plan for achieving this.

McConnon (1990: 45) gives the following guidelines to help a learner to set his/her own goals.

6.1 Explain to the learner the stages how one can achieve goals in the following way:

1. **Goal:** That what you want to achieve. Warn them against setting unrealistic and unattainable goals.
2. **Plan:** The steps to achieving this goal are to be practical and achievable e.g. I shall think before I belittle someone.
3. **Support system:** Who is going to help the learner achieve this goal? What part can peers, parents, educators, etc. play?
4. **Time:** A realistic time should be set for the goal to be achieved, which will vary from person to person.
5. **Celebration:** The learner rewards himself or the educator rewards him when the goal has been achieved.

Goal setting should not be seen as a one-off moment, but as a continuous process with learners monitoring their own and each other's progress, reviewing goals, plans and support system.

5.2 Worksheet 5.39 **Setting goals** (McConnon, 1990: 46) can be used when learners need to set their own goals.

Worksheet 5.39

SETTING GOALS

1. My goal that I want to achieve:

2. My plan to achieve this goal:

3. My support system:

4. The time I need to achieve my goal:

5. Celebration:

Exercise 7: DEVELOPING A CONTRACT

Aim: To help learners to keep a commitment and to develop a sense of responsibility.

To benignly confront the learner with his/her self-defeating behaviour is an important strategy, but he/she should also be held accountable for his/her actions. A way to hold him/her accountable and to monitor his/her behaviour is to draw up a contract with the learner. This will remind the learner of the logical consequences of his/her actions.

McConnon (1990: 46) gives the following example of a self-contract Worksheet 5.40 **A self contract** which is slightly adapted by the researcher.

Worksheet 5.40

A Self-contract

I _____

promise that by _____

I will _____

By doing:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

With the help of: _____

And will celebrate by: _____

Or

Bear the consequences by: _____

Signed:_____ Date:_____

Witness _____ Date: _____

5.4 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The rationale of this research was to investigate and to look at strategies and guidelines practitioners are currently implementing to ensure the effective management of the self-defeating behaviours. The aim was furthermore to draw from current strategies to develop new strategies that should be implemented to manage the self-defeating behaviours and in particular the central issues Impulsivity with guilt, Peer manipulation and Anti-social behavior with guilt.

To verify the success of these strategies and guidelines, it will be important that an empirical testing and evaluation of these strategies and guidelines are done. Before testing and evaluation can be done, it is important that educators are trained in the LSCI paradigm and specific educators, for example the teacher support teams (TST), are trained in the LSCI method. As part of the training schools and educators should be assured that adequate support materials and organizational support will be available and provided. This should serve as a motivational factor that could inspire educators to commit themselves fully to address disruptive behavior.

To implement and apply these strategies a pilot program can be run over a period of time at a school where educators will view this model in a positive way. Through research one can determine how well these educators applied these strategies and to what extent they were successful. By testing these strategies, it is possible to ascertain the creativity of educators and what inspired them to develop their own strategies, tools and techniques to deal with disruptive learners. This will provide educators with strategies that work within the South African context. Educators may come up with strategies within the LSCI model that may result in even greater success. This model is not cast in stone and is open for further development of new strategies and approaches.

The Teacher Support team has a key role to play in the support of this model. It is also very important that their involvement should be evaluated in order to make sure that the support given to the educators is adequate.

Research should be done on a continuous basis to gauge the success of these guidelines and strategies to see how the programme can be further developed in terms of support, for e.g. administrative support, development and acquisition of new material and to determine what kind of collaboration there should be between the different role players. For many it will be a new way of addressing the needs of the learners. This is why continuous research should be done so that the successes and the limitations can be gauged and improved on. This model is still on a theoretical level in South Africa and it would be interesting to determine its success on a practical level.

To facilitate the challenging task of the educators, the researcher would recommend the development of a manual to set out clear guidelines educators can use as a tool to implement these strategies. We need to look closely at our context in South Africa and make sure that the LSCI strategy is implemented successfully in the South African context. The development of a manual that would take our specific context into account would be a valuable tool for educators.

5.5 CRITIQUE

A critique could be that the literature review concentrated mainly on international literature and not so much on South African literature. Research revealed that literature which deal with the central issues as outlined in the LSCI within the South African context is extremely scarce.

People will most probably challenge the premise that this approach is not part of the OBE curriculum as it is implemented in the South African context, but an add on. The

expectation is that educators in South Africa will be skeptical to the implementation of these strategies which they might see as a model that will increase their work load and put them under pressure. The researcher believes that the LSCI Strategy is geared to address specific needs of an individual learner when it is manifested according to the central issues, namely Impulsivity with guilt, Peer Manipulation and Anti-social behavior without guilt.

5.6 SUMMARY AND RECOMENDATIONS

This research attempted to draw from current literature for strategies to support educators to manage self-defeating behavior. The research did not only look at strategies and skills learners need to gain insight in their self-deprecating behavior and to apply self-control, but to investigate and to develop skills which should empower educators to successfully implement the LSCI strategy and to manage disruptive behavior.

Key issues that was stressed throughout the research is that the process to teach learners insight in their self-defeating behavior is a challenging and arduous task, but with dedication and commitment success can be achieved.

A concern that came to the fore in the literature is that educators have the fear that they will lose their status as a respected individual and also their authority if they do not address misbehaviour immediately and with zero tolerance practices. If this is the route to follow, educators will constantly fall in the conflict cycle and frustration levels of both parties will escalate. This fear of losing one's status should be addressed by making educators realize that their primary task should not be to control the learners, but to support them and to have their needs met in a positive way. This can be done by not only giving them choices, but also to teach them skills and strategies to exercise self-control and to use the crisis as a learning opportunity.

If educators are serious to help these learners, they must bear in mind that these learners do not function well under systems where adults are in control or behavior-management systems where educators determine the criteria for success. They function better where they are made part of the learning process, and where they have the opportunity to evaluate themselves. By including them, we give them a sense of control that will enable them to experience the freedom they desire and fight for.

The aim of the LSCI is not just to give the learners insight, but also to give them control so that they can be in charge of their own life. Educators should make a conscious effort to provide learners with the necessary skills to put them in charge of their own lives.

For the LSCI to be effective, educators will have to make a paradigm shift to an entirely new and different philosophy of how they will educate and interact with learners at school.

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